AFFECTIVE INTERVENTIONS AND MEASURES:

A Public Elementary School Case Study

JOHN R. MEYER, Principal Investigator

This research project was funded under the Ministry of Education, Ontario.
It reflects the views of the authors and not necessarily those of the Ministry.

The Honourable Sean Conway, Minister

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SUMMARY/ABSTRACT

The past decade has seen numerous projects, programs, and materials development in affective education and such related areas as citizenship, social education, and moral and values development. Many of these developments have not attended to the component of assessment, at least for a minimal period of implementation. This research project addressed that issue by applying a modified quasi-experimental design to school-based research for a 3-4 year period.

The central question was: COULD INTERVENTIONS OF AN AFFECTIVE NATURE BE CONSISTENTLY APPLIED IN A CONTROLLED MANNER OVER A SUFFICIENT PERIOD OF TIME TO ASSURE MULTI-DIMENSIONAL GROWTH IN PRE-ADOLESCENTS THAT COULD BE MEASURED BY A BATTERY OF INSTRUMENTS?

It was hypothesized that as a result of:

(1) experiences gained from classroom interventions, students in grades 2, 4, and 6 would demonstrate significant gains in (a) awareness of feelings and values, (b) sensitivity to the needs of others, (c) problem-solving skills, and (d) prosocial behaviours. Results: gains in (a) and (b); teachers' self-report of gains for (d).

(2) the application of special interventions, the instructional environment would facilitate affective growth. Results: no visible support for significant changes in the instructional environment. Prevalence of uncontrolled variables.

(3) the inservice component, the teachers of the experimental classes would develop enabling skills commensurate with project objectives. Results: only slight support for gains in enabling skills.

(4) the use of unique combinations of measures, the assessment of the affective domain would be improved and permit a more accurate degree of generalizability. Results: the application of a battery of measures did support such improvement and potential. Needed were more clustering and content analyses of the data.

(5) as a result of information acquired from parents and community samples, it would be demonstrated that the home and the community environments are significant variables in any prosocial development. Results: this was supported in the direction of indicating discontinuity between typically conventional stated value preferences and ideal value development.

The nature and experience of this type of educational research revealed serious weaknesses in the inability to control important variables and particularly in the inconsistency of the application of the interventions. Programs of an affective nature that claim significant causal relationships for outcome gains demand much more careful assessment. On the other hand, there is evidence that specific variables and controlled interventions can be powerful facilitators of affective growth.

INTRODUCTION

Rationale:

> The major purpose of a school is to help each student develop his/her potential as an individual and as a contributing, responsible member of society who will think clearly, feel deeply, and act wisely. This purpose can be achieved when the school facilitates the intellectual, physical, social, cultural, emotional, and moral growth of each student and develops more fully the knowledge, skills, and aptitudes that each student brings to the school. (OSIS, 1.1, 1984.)

The above is a recent policy statement from the Ministry of Education, Ontario, and is one of several that explicitly includes the affective nature of all education, namely, feelings, responsible and participatory citizenship, and "social, cultural, emotional, and moral growth". The need for such policy statements is clear since societal structures and behavioural patterns have rapidly and significantly changed each succeeding decade.

Social scientists have been accused (Mussen 1983) of not providing enough research evidence to apply in raising levels of compassion, kindness, and concern for others. That posture is being reversed with the greatly increased quality, scope, and intensity of prosocial and affective types of basic and applied research. Prosocial research methods, measures, and content have improved and been refined to the point that it is now difficult to select integrated items from the vast array of published materials (cf. Leming 1984; Cochrane's annual bibliography in the Moral Education Forum).

Though we now know more about the affective nature of human beings, we also know the complexity of the peculiar composition of emotions, affect, personality traits, values, cognitive structures, and social behaviours. This complexity is compounded by (a) the multiplicity of researchable variables in any educational context, (b) the lack of a multidimensional measure that would assess the optimal number of variables, and (c) the culturally pluralistic nature of research subjects and contexts.

Given these difficulties, which are reduced or absent from the more purely scientific models of research, the task of identifying what educational interventions might enhance affective learning and growth remains a challenge to be initiated by the educational researcher. There has been a shift to emphasize the role of schooling as a major socializing agency that not only facilitates but should promote affective growth. The type of research reported here is intended to both identify the complexities and to aid the school in promoting such growth.

Whether or not one believes that narcissism (Lasch 1979) is the dominant cultural trait of our times, it is important to explore some basic assumptions in the prosocial research.

State of the Art of Prosocial Research

The assumptions that underpin much of the research of this project are the results of the last twenty years of research. Obviously not all the factors could be attended to nor has all of the research been summarized. There is still a lack of clarity about any number of findings, designs, measures, and interventions. Many researchers in this field take pains to stress the tentativeness of their findings and weaknesses in the design and implementation features.

Such sensitivity is promoted by the few and accurate critiques of the reviewers using meta-analysis or other sensitive techniques to assess research publications. In the face of a more sophisticated science of program research, there are some commonalities that do give a foundation for the type of experimental or quasi-experimental research project described here.

(a) The first assumption is that a research project designed to assess the impact of specified interventions upon students has a point of view about the nature of human beings. It is essentially a philosophical stance about "personhood" and about what type of person is desirable for our society. Hence, it has to do with both personal development and societal values.

There is a recognition that several points of view exist, and sometimes conflict, and that a pluralistic society with a public educational system must accommodate various points of view. Some have argued that one of the responsibilities of public education is to provide "moral socialization" defined as the process by which children learn societal goals and values. But we have some very vague notions about what are societal goals and values and who identifies them.

Given these problems of differing points of view about the nature of human beings, this project delineates the person as a conscious, intentional, relational (thus, social and ethical), and spiritual being who acts upon and is acted upon by external forces. This person is normally capable of behaviour that is informed by rationality and moral consciousness. Such a person has the capacity for growth or development in personal and social values that include values of civility, equality, and human dignity in a democratic and pluralistic society.

Education would serve such a person by promoting or enhancing prosocial behaviours based upon: moral and intellectual virtues, character traits, social competences, principles and values of moral conduct, and religious commitments (Cochrane, Hamm, Kazepides 1979; Munsey 1980; Pring 1982; Wilson 1983).

One of the major components of prosocial behaviour is moral or values development. There is currently a vast corpus of literature available but relatively little evidence of outcomes resulting from classroom interventions at the elementary grades. There has been the usual fuzziness about definition and the particular ideological stance that the instructor or the materials may advocate. In order to defuse some of that ambiguity, this project assumed a model of moral or values development identified in several previous provincial projects.

An eclectic model was espoused that viewed moral development as essentially developmental similar to the cognitive or structuralist approach of Piaget, Kohlberg, and disciples. This has been the approach that has been deemed most educationally sound. It is grounded in reason but compatible with certain forms of theological reflection.

The moral domain is the subject matter for normative ethics, which seek to: develop and apply appropriate principles and rules of moral conduct; provide a clarification analysis and critique of moral arguments and issues; and explore and justify what ought to be done in a given situation.

The psychosocial development from "self-centredness" to "autonomy" or "other-directedness" is fundamental to such moral or values development. It is largely by means of classroom instructional activities that promote cognitive dissonance in dealing with personal and social value issues that this growth is expected.

From the perspective of a school system(s), it is incumbent upon educational systems in democratic societies to educate "citizens" who are capable and disposed to enrich and promote the welfare of that society. Hence, it is appropriate that such lables as "civic education" and "citizenship" now be used in formal education for goals and interventions intending to promote various aspects of personal development.

We know from the research literature, and particularly from social studies research, that the development of participation skills in pre-adolescents for decision-making and community building are desperately needed (Hepburn 1983; Berry and Todd 1984). This has direct application to any expectations of schools promoting citizenship competencies by means of school and classroom governance, leadership roles, advocacy, and rights and responsibilities as present students and citizens with limited rights.

This concern was partially expressed in OSIS, 7.4, Code of Student Behaviour:

> ...each secondary school shall enunciate a clear code of student behaviour developed co-operatively with the help of parents, students, and staff for the approval of the board. This code should emphasize a sense of self-worth and self-discipline in students and should clearly outline realistic and effective consequences for failure to meet its standards. (p. 35.)

(b) The human potential for prosocial behaviour is a strong and enduring one. Friendliness, co-operation, sharing, caregiving, and helping others are prosocial characteristics of infant and adult behaviour (Hay and Rheingold 1983; Higgins, Ruble, and Hartup 1983; Stewart and Smith 1983; Staub 1978, 1979).

(c) The family, as one of the more powerful influences, affects prosocial responses or behaviour (McClelland et al. 1978; Stanley 1978; Bridgeman 1983; Baumrind 1982; Heath and Clifford 1980; Smith et al. 1983; Lickona 1983).

(d) The school and the classroom environments as the principal site for formal education justify in-school interventions in prosocial education (Bidwell 1972; Mehan 1978; Freiberg et al. 1981; Anderson 1982; Hamilton 1983; Leming 1984). Another allied area of concern is that of co-operative learning, which has yielded some important results (Sharan 1980; Stewart 1982; Slavin 1983; Johnson and Johnson 1983; Shwalb and Shwalb 1984).

(e) Recent studies indicate that distinctions should be made when considering the motivation for acting prosocially. There are three categories of events: (1) moral - evaluated on the basis of justice and the consequences of the action for others; (2) social-conventional - evaluated on the basis of respect for social prescriptions and order; and (3) personal - evaluated in terms of personal preference (Smetana, Bridgeman, and Turiel 1983; Turiel and Smetana 1983; Turiel 1983).

(f) Quantitative research approaches have now been considerably complimented by qualitative or ethnographic research methods and approaches. The variables and interactions can be observed and analysed in their operative settings. Such contextual evaluation models provide a more adequate access to the multidimensional educational world (Patton 1975; Kowitz and Dronberger 1977; Tikunoff and Ward 1977; Britan 1978; Frick and Semmel 1978; Cook and Reichardt 1979; Eisner 1981; Guba and Lincoln 1982; Dobbert 1982; Goetz and LeCompte 1982, 1984; Herriott and Firestone 1983; Brown and Solomon 1983).

(g) Recent gender related studies have indicated that distinct "realities" or perspectives differentiate males and females in any consideration of values or moral development. One characteristic of the female perspective is that of ethical caring. It is not clear at what ages this is effective nor how this relates to sex-role stereotyping (Erickson 1980; Gilligan 1982; Noddings 1984). Walker (1984) concluded an impressive meta-analysis by supporting evidence of nonsignificant sex differences in moral reasoning (see appendix I).

(h) The effectiveness of affective interventions has not been adequately demonstrated or assessed. In addition to the normal problem areas of any research, e.g., preventing or reducing non-randomization, the Hawthorne effect, the Pygmalion effect, natural maturation effects, public exposure, and short-term effects, this type of research must be especially sensitive to the nature and claims of the interventions, selection of variables, the skills of the instructional facilitator, and time-on-task (Poggio 1974; Barclay 1977 (b); Sanders and Chapman 1977; Hudgins 1979; Baskin and Hess 1980; Cline and Feldmesser 1983).

(j) Studies have shown a correlation between affective personal development and academic achievement (Aspy and Roebuck 1978; Chapman and Davis 1977; Enright et al. 1980; Newberg 1982; Freiberg 1982; Brown and Solomon 1983; Meyer 1984).

(k) Insufficient research has been done on the particular teacher competences needed in affective education (Wheaton 1984). The little work that has been achieved was useful for this project (Dilling, Fieldstone, and Wideman 1977). Newer studies on the teacher's control and guidance of the classroom discourse on moral or critical issues may prove most helpful. The quality of the discourse in terms of meaningfulness and matching to domains is under serious study (Nucci 1981; Berkowitz 1981, 1983).

An Ontario Perspective

Both the educational research and the reporting of the results on values development have been extensive in Ontario (Meyer 1975, 1976a, 1976b; Meyer, Burham, and Cholvat 1975). An excellent overview appeared in "Moral/Values Development and Education: The Ten-Year Perspective in Ontario - 1968-78 (Bulletin 1980). Personal and Societal Values: A Resource Guide for the Primary and Junior Divisions (1983) reflects the long history of moral and values development in the province.

Two school system projects are now into their second decade of formal promotion and structure for this type of development. The Scarborough Board of Education and the Board of Education for the City of Hamilton have personnel designated to develop curricula, provide in-service opportunities, liaise with appropriate agencies and school personnel, and generally organize and provide resources for values/moral/human developmental activities.

Their record and results have been remarkable given the various obstacles that sporadically appear. Leaders from both of these board units have substantially supported the establishment and existence of the Ontario Moral/Values Education Association. Many of their projects have been described in the bulletin, Ethics in Education.

Because of the persistence of a small group of dedicated educators for almost twenty years, Ontario has somewhat a reputation in North America as a leader in research and implementation in moral and values development. No doubt much of that image is due to various statements made by the Ministry of Education, Ontario, either as policy, information, or mandated curricula. More recent documentation echoes several of the 13 official "Goals of Education" of the province, e.g.,

6. develop a feeling of self-worth;
7. develop an understanding of the role of the individual within the family and the role of the family within society;
8. acquire skills that contribute to self-reliance in solving practical problems in everyday life;
9. develop a sense of personal responsibility in society at the local, national, and international levels;
10. develop esteem for the customs, cultures, and beliefs of a wide variety of societal groups;
11. acquire skills and attitudes that will lead to satisfaction and productivity int he world of work;

12. develop respect for the environment and a commitment to the wise use of resources;
13. develop values related to personal, ethical, or religious beliefs and to the common welfare of society.

Other official government documents that have expressly supported the systematic and inclusive role of moral and values development are:

- Issues and Directions (1980);
- Ontario Schools: Intermediate and Senio; Secondary (= OSIS) (1983);
- Personal and Societal Values (1983) (k-6);
- Discipline (1985) [support document to OSIS];
- Values, Influences, and Peers (1985);
- Personal Life Management (1985).

Although there is no hard data available at present to determine the extent of implementation of school and class-room interventions to promote prosocial behaviour (i.e., moral and values development), it is an educated guess that minimal activity is common, with isolated cases of systematic application. A précis of such developments in North America appears in appendix II.

The Problem

More than a decade of educational research and curriculum development in Ontario has included some focus on social education, i.e., the content and form of educational processes that promote the development of social skills in learners whereby they can socially negotiate reality. Such a comprehensive definition would assure that particular dimensions of social education, e.g., moral, values, citizenship education would be included (cf. appendix II).

Given that a number of these projects have been reported in the research literature and that some continue implementation, it is curious to discover that few, if any, have considered evaluation of the effects of treatments. If an evaluation component was incorporated, it usually represented self-reporting of an non-empirical design by an advisory committee. The absence of more rigorous and empirical assessment can be traced to several limiting conditions, viz., short-term design and commitment, lack of priority in the system for research suport, inadequate personnel and financial support for the specific research tasks, reluctance of on-site teachers and subjects to engage in field research, and the absence of accountability pressures from external agencies and the resistance from internal forces (Cline and Feldmesser 1983).

In the mid 1970s, two large school systems in Ontario did attempt to measure moral cognitive growth using the difficult and costly interview techniques formulated by Kohlberg, Selman, Damon, et al. This procedure was linked to the ICS (Burnham 1975) or the "Important Considerations Survey", which was a mixture of some forced-choice items and an open-ended section. The administration of these measures took place at the seven to tenth grade levels with fairly small cohorts of subjects. There was no significant difference between the experimental and control groups that maturation or other factors would not account for. It was useful to assist in the development of the measures and to learn that the treatments would have to be more intensive and extensive. It also suggested that adolescents could be identified as fixed at the preconventional and the first stage of the conventional level on the Kohlbergian taxonomy.

While some researchers talked about more holistic development that would focus upon the "affective" domain of the learner, there was a clear lack of multidimensional assessment to tap these characteristics. The research in moral and values education had remained primarily "moral" in its direction and evaluation using the Kohlbergian conceptual framework or Beck's "ultimate life goals" approach.

Certainly, an awareness of the importance of social education with its various subdivisions was achieved throughout much of the province. Other variables such as the teachers' expertise, the supporting role of the family, the influence of the media, and the school environment came into play as each new treatment or classroom intervention occurred. Many of these variables were not controlled for during previous projects nor was it possible to control them given the circumstances of the projects and the limitations imposed.

In the later 1970s, efforts were made to identify both improved affective measures and to develop a multidimensional battery of measures that would provide more empirical evidence that appropriate growth would occur if the conditions and interventions were adequately applied. Thus, efforts were made to provide a balance between the scientism associated with psychometric and quantitative research and the vagueness and absence of scientific rigour associated, heretofore, with humanistic, affective research. The problem that confronted us was:

> COULD INTERVENTIONS OF AN AFFECTIVE NATURE BE CONSISTENTLY APPLIED IN A CONTROLLED SCHOOL SETTING OVER A SUFFICIENT PERIOD OF TIME TO ASSURE MULTIDIMENSIONAL GROWTH IN PRE-ADOLESCENTS THAT CAN BE EMPIRICALLY MEASURED BY A BATTERY OF INSTRUMENTS?

Scope of the Research

The research was of three to four years duration in one elementary school (experimental cohort) beginning at the grades 2, 4, 6 levels. The components consisted of:

1) the use of multidimensional measures in comparable school environments for experimental (128) and control (155) subjects;
2) the application of instructional materials designed to promote personal and values development in the designated classroom in the experimental school;
3) the engagement of the specified classroom teachers in the experimental school in in-service or professional development activities appropriate to the project; and
4) attempts to assure parental collaboration as an extension of the classroom interventions.

Thus, the scope of this research reflected the concern to obviate many or all of the obstacles and inadequacies experienced in much of the previous research typically characterized by: (a) unidimensional assessment measures, (b) inconsistent and episodic application of instructional materials, (c) insufficient teacher development by means of inservice and involvement, and (d) insufficient parental and administrative commitment and support.

The research design attempted to attend to the identification and control of the independent variable (the classroom interventions consisting of a conglomerate of instructional variables) and the dependent variable (the results yielded by each measure).

Five hypotheses were identified for verification. THAT AS A RESULT OF:

(1) experiences gained from teacher directed interventions, students in grades 2, 4, and 6 will demonstrate significant gains in
   (a) awareness of their feelings and values;
   (b) sensitivity to the needs of others;
   (c) problem-solving skills, and
   (d) prosocial behaviours;
(2) the application of these classroom interventions, the instructional environment will facilitate the desired outcomes of knowledge, skills, and behaviours;
(3) the in-service component and the use of the selected interventions, the teachers of the experimental cohort will develop enabling skills commensurate with the project objectives;
(4) the use of a unique combination of measurement instruments, the assessment of the affective domain will be improved and permit a more accurate degree of generalizability (Hopkins 1984);
(5) information acquired from parents and community samples, it can be demonstrated that the home and community environments are significant variables in any prosocial development.

The scope of the research is rather inclusive so that the design of the research plan had to be constructed on a multidimensional basis in order to provide evidence of support or non-support for these hypotheses. It is to that design that we now turn our attention.

RESEARCH DESIGN

There were eight major components to the design, viz.:

Population (=N): With permissions from the appropriate research committee, two school principals, and parents of the 20,000+ school system, (a) students from grades 2, 4, and 6 in the control school (N=155) and in the experimental school (N=129); (b) 133 parents of experimental classrooms; (c) teachers from both experimental and control classrooms; and (d) 15 volunteers from the school and local community comprised the research population.

The students had to receive approval from their parents for not only participation in the entire project but also for any testing using pre- and post-test measures. About 5% of the total N were denied this permission. Another 10% of the subjects were lost during the course of the project due to withdrawal from the schools.

As Cronbach (1978) has clearly stated, "controls break down". It was impossible to obtain a true random sample or to assure that groups would remain constant. Every effort was made to choose schools with the greatest similarities in the same socio-economic community. Many of the families were dependent upon the stability of the industrial sector, but due to an economic recession that significantly affected this industrial sector during the life of the project, there was a fair amount of movement in and out of the community. Social change and a degree of dislocation and dysfunction within the family structure contributed to more instability than anticipated.

However, that situation also provided additional insights into the multiple variables that affect the growth patterns of the affective domain. The circumstances and the variations that occurred in the course of the research required adaptation, flexibility, and an investigation of the environment and the treatments rather than the single experiment.

> It is usually not possible to guard against every possible source of bias in a design before the program is undertaken, and the investigator should not hesitate to innovate and make additions to the design (Cline and Feldmesser 1983, p. 44).

Measures: Since the research literature and my experience (Meyer 1977) did not yield a battery of measures inclusive of the many variables in the hypotheses, the choice of the measures was largely determined by their acceptability as reliable and valid instruments, their previous record of use, and their compatibility with variables and audience groups in the study. The few resources in affective measurement (Bills 1975; Gephart, Ingle, and Marshall 1976; Cook and Reichardt 1979; Guba 1978; Anderson 1981) were reviewed for insights into the construction of a multidimensional approach. Table 1 represents the groupings and titles of the measures as well as other relevant data.

TABLE 1

SUBJECT GROUPINGS AND MEASURES USED

N	MEASURE	GRADE LEVELS
250	BCAS (Barclay Classroom Assessment System)	3 - 6
	SPAS (Student Perception of Ability Scale)	2 - 8
	MOTEC (Morality Test for Children)	2 - 8
	MSA (Measure of Social Affect)	2 - 8
133	HSVI (Ryan's Home and School Inventory)	
	PAS (Parental Attitude Survey)	
9	HSVI	
11	TVQ (Teacher Values Questionnaire, 1 and 2)	

Each of these measures will be described in detail. Some are available commercially and others are adaptations or creations of researchers and only available through them.

(1) Barclay Classroom Assessment System (BCAS): developed and refined over a twenty-year period by James R. Barclay. It consists of 32 independent scales including (a) self-report scales relating to the subject's estimation of his/her skills, (b) peer-report scales relating to basic sociometric choices about peer group judgement of skills, (c) vocational awareness scales, and (d) teacher estimates about student's interpersonal skills, interest, reinforcers, and attitude toward school.

The system is computerized so that individual and class reports are provided based upon factor scores for "achievement-motivation", "control-stability", "introversion-seclusion", "energy-activity", "sociability-affiliation", and "enterprising-dominance".

Formerly called the BCCI or Barclay Classroom Climate Inventory, it is now distributed by Western Psychological Services.

(2) Student's Perception of Ability Scale (SPAS): developed by Frederic J. Boersma, James Chapman, and Thomas Macguire. It has 70 items and six scales designed to measure academic self-perception in elementary aged children. It provides a means for the student to describe and distinguish himself or herself as a unique person in terms of the interactions and performance on academic tasks in the areas of language arts and maths. Subscales are: perception of general ability, of arithmetic ability, general school satisfaction, reading and spelling ability, penmanship and neatness, and confidence in academic ability. Time allotment = 20 minutes.

(3) Morality Test for Children (MOTEC): developed by Avner Ziv, Psychology Department, Tel Aviv University, in two-form booklet style. Seven moral dilemmas are presented in story format. The resolution of the dilemmas by response to questions in the booklet indicates a moral maturity score for five variables: resistance to temptation; the stages of anomy, heteronomy, socionomy, autonomy; feelings subsequent to transgression; confession after transgression; and judgement of the severity of the punishment. Time allotment = approximately 45 minutes.

(4) Measure of Social Affect (MSA): developed by project researchers E. Scanlan and J. Meyer for purposes of measuring the variables of home environment and authority, worries or anxiety, and sex-role stereotyping. There were 65 items and a five point Likert scale for recording the responses. The measure was pilot-tested and prepared in consultation with teachers and a school principal. Time allotment = 20 minutes.

(5) Home and School Values Inventory (HSVI): developed in 1975 by T.A. Ryan for purposes of determining correlations between parent and child's values position for 17 categories involving 136 questions on a "yes" - "no" scale. The categories are: persistence, competition, success, good grades, manners, status, risks, work, honesty, religion, authority, family, leadership, materialism, altruism, friends, discipline. The inventory was administered only to parents of the control classes and only once.

(6) Parental Attitude Survey (PAS): adapted from Shaw and Wright (1967). It consists of 86 items on 8 scales: attitudes toward educational practices, child-centered policies, interests, home discipline, child's leisure activities, peers and siblings, religion, and community. Administered once only to parents of students in the experimental classes.

(7) Teacher Values Questionnaire (TVQ): developed by H. Dilling (1977) for purposes of determining what actually transpires in teaching situations at the elementary level. Part 1 consisted of 54 items that probed teacher's personal values and part 2 consisted of the same number of items probing classroom values. Six values were studied: competition, obedience to authority, independent decision-making, creativity, co-operation, and affection. Seven teacher behaviours used to transmit these values were studied: directing, encouraging, discouraging, positive teacher modelling, negative teacher modelling, student positive modelling, and student negative modelling. This questionnaire was administered once to the Windsor teachers of both experimental and control classes. Available from the Research Office, Scarborough Board of Education or Ministry of Education, Ontario.

(8) Classroom Observation Inventory (COI): developed by the project team in order to apply some modest techniques of qualitative or ethnographic research. Sixteen items concerning classroom atmosphere and the nature of the communications were identified and seven items for problem-solving and task achievement were included with a five point frequency scale.

Procedures: The research design was a modification of the "Pretest-Posttest Control Group Design" and the "Solomon Four-Group Design" (Campbell and Stanley 1966, pp. 13-25). Because of the inability to truly randomize approved classroom groups due to objections of students and parents potentially excluded from the cohorts and because of the instability of students remaining in cohorts for longer or less than even one academic year, the classroom group became the unit of measure. There was an attempt to balance female and male students in a pretest selection of one-half of the students to be measured in both control and experimental schools. This was to have been followed with a post-test of the remaining half of the class students at the end of the project.

However, certain measures, e.g., Barclay, were not given to Grade 2 students in the pretest and all measures were omitted for the grade 9 students in the post-test. Similar difficulties occurred in administering measures to the parents. Parents of students in the control school were reluctant to complete the HSVI and would have refused any additional or post-test application of measures.

What resulted was the much used "Nonequivalent Control Group Design" (Campbell and Stanley 1966, pp. 47-50) with modifications (the Solomon four-group design) as diagrammed thus:

[O_1 = Experimental classes, 1/2 pretest] $O_1 \times O_2$ [O_2 = All postexper., except 9's]

[O_3 = Control " 1/2 "] O_3 O_4 [O_4 = All postcontrol, except 9's]

THE INSTRUCTIONAL INTERVENTIONS

Since this project was essentially concerned about appropriate measurement of outcomes from select classroom interventions, it was important that (a) the variables be matched between measure and intervention, (b) the interventions be appropriate to developmental levels of the students and grounded on acceptable models, and (c) the interventions be delivered as expected by the theory and nature of the materials used.

To meet these criteria, the eclectic model of prosocial development was adopted consisting of four components: awareness, sensitivity, moral reasoning, and action. The materials were largely commercial ones that had been field tested in previous projects. The variables and sequence for delivery were carefully charted and disseminated to the teachers. This was thought to be important particularly for those materials that had an inherent developmental sequence and that required entrance level skills.

The selection criteria for the materials were: satisfactory theoretical foundation and previous use, the relatedness to the teachers' repertoire of experience and skills, and compatible objectives and components within the materials.

Grade Level: Primary (K-3)

Title and Publisher: DEVELOPING UNDERSTANDING OF SELF & OTHERS (DUSO)

American Guidance Services, 1970

(multi-media kit)

Objectives: To understand self, feelings, others, self-reliance, goals, purposeful behaviour, mastery, competence, resourcefulness, emotions, choices, and consequences.

Desired application: 20 minutes per day

Actual application: 40 - 60 minutes per week

Grade level: Late Primary and Junior (3-5)

Title and Publisher: DEVELOPING UNDERSTANDING OF SELF & OTHERS - II

(DUSO II)

American Guidance Services, 1973

(multi-media kit)

Objectives: To enhance a positive self-image, friendships, responsible interdependence, self-reliance, personal motivation, competence, emotional stability, decision making.

Desired application: 20 minutes per day

Actual application: 40 - 60 minutes per week

Grade level: Primary (2-3)

Title and Publisher: FIRST THINGS: SOCIAL REASONING

Guidance Associates, 1976

(multi-media kits)

Objectives: To enhance social perspective, and to promote movement from self-perspective to empathy with others.

Desired application: 60+ minutes, 3 times per week

Actual application: 60+ minutes per week

Grade level: Primary (K-3) and Junior (4-6)

Title and Publisher: VALUES EDUCATION SERIES

Halton (Ont.) Board of Education, 1976

(twelve file-folders)

Objectives: To promote universal value categories of affection, influence, respect, responsibility, and wisdom by means of classroom activities and integration with subjects.

Desired application: several times per day, incidentally with subjects

Actual application: Insufficient evidence

Grade level: Primary and Junior (3-6)

Title and publisher: FEELINGS AND VALUE SERIES

Argus Communications, 1976-79

(multi-media kits)

Objectives: To facilitate values clarification of feelings and sensitivities.

Desired application: 30-60 minutes 2 or 3 times per week

Actual application: 60 minutes per week

Grade level: Primary and Junior (1-5)

Title and publisher THE NEW MODEL ME

by J. Rowe, M. Pasch, W. Hamilton, 1983

Part I: "Dealing with the Causes of Behavior"

Teachers' College Press

Objectives: To build an understanding of human behaviour for students and to provide a framework for students that will help them make decisions about their behaviour.

Desired application: No indication

Actual application: 90 minutes total for project life

Grade Level: Junior (4-6)

Title and publisher: FIRST THINGS: VALUES

Guidance Associates, 1972

(multi-media kits)

Objectives: To promote moral development by means of dilemma resolution, focusing on the value issues of honesty, truth telling, obedience, justice.

Desired application: 40 - 60 minutes several times per week

Actual application: 35 minutes once every 2 weeks.

Grade level: Primary through Intermediate

Title and publisher: MORAL EDUCATION SERIES

London (Ont.) Board of Education, 1979

(Binder and activity sheets)

Objectives: To promote moral development by means of dilemma and situational issues designed for an integrated application in elementary school classrooms.

Desired applicaiton: 40 - 60 minutes several times per week

Actual application: Selected lessons at grades 2, 5, 6, 7 for 30 - 40 minutes per week

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Grade level: Junior (3-5)

Title and publisher: TEACHING VALUES WITH FAT ALBERT AND THE COSBY KIDS

(series), 1978, "The Runt", "Lying and Stealing", "Friends"

McGraw-Hill

WINNIE THE WITCH TEACHES VALUES, 1975

WINNIE THE POOH AND THE RIGHT THING TO DO, 1976

McIntyre Educational Media Ltd.

Objectives: To provide elementary students with visually stimulating instruction on topics of truth-telling, honesty, personal relationships, peers.

Desired application: 40 minutes several times per week

Actual application: 40 minutes every 2 weeks

Grade Level: Junior (4-6)

Title and publisher: MORAL DECISION-MAKING

Moreland-Latchford, 1974

(multi-media kit)

Objectives: To promote moral development with a focus on integrity, honesty, anger, guilt, generosity.

Desired application: 40+ minutes several times per week

Actual application: 35 minutes once every 2 weeks

Grade level: Junior (4-6)

Title and publisher: TOWARD AFFECTIVE DEVELOPMENT (TAD)

American Guidance Services, 1974

(multi-media kit)

Objectives: To promote awareness and development of students' openness to experiences, feelings, group and co-operative tasks, future directedness, and decision-making skills by means of 191 sequentially arranged lessons.

Desired application: 60+ minutes 2-3 times per week

Actual application: 35 minutes once every 2 weeks

Grade level: Junior (6) and Intermediate (7-8)

Title and publisher: THE CURRICULUM FOR MEETING MODERN PROBLEMS

Lakewood Public Schools, Ohio, 1974

Part II: "Dealing with Aggressive Behavior"

Objectives: To promote prosocial behaviours through study of five units: a profile of behaviour and aggression, youth in confrontation, vandalism, protest, and violence.

Desired application: No indication

Actual application: 90 minutes total for project life

Grade level: Junior (7-8)

Title and publisher: INSIDE/OUT

Instructional Television Center (Bloomington, Ind., 1973) and TV Ontario, 1973 - 78.

Objectives: To promote decision making about real moral or values issues; stimulate modelling and classroom activities.

Desired application: 30 minute vignettes for several classroom sessions per week, i.e., one-two showings followed by activity

Actual applicaiton: minimum once per week; used films: In my Memory, Just Joking, Home Sweet Home, But Names Will Never Hurt, When is Help?

OTHER: Materials compatible from individual books, films, or project handouts from other agencies, e.g., addiction, safety, death/dying, vandalism.

Canfield, 100 Ways to Enhance Self-Concept in the Classroom (Prentice-Hall, 1976).

Howe, L., and Howe, M., Personalizing Education: Values Education & Beyond (Hart Publications, 1975).

DISCUSSION:

It seems inevitable that distortion of the parameters of materials and interventions will occur in the process of bridging theory and practice. This can be expected in the case of seasoned practitioners who will accept the vagaries of the contextual situation rather than the intended prescriptions of the external researcher.

Such may be a rather typical phenomenon reflected in the following comments of an ethnographer.

> The great paw of professional education scoops up anything and everything, but the digestive system of the organism often fails to derive much nourishment and instead leaves important qualities undigested. What is digested is often what seems least important to the innovator. Even those aspects of the potential innovation that are selected for incorporation may, from the innovator's perspective, become quite distorted. (Spindler 1982.)

It had been hypothesized that preservice training would be necessary and indispensable for the effective use of interventions. After an initial in-depth workshop, the instructors wished only to call upon the project on an individual basis according to their needs or for group work corresponding to other inservice opportunities and preferences. Thus, the project leader and research assistant responded accordingly and met formally two to three times per year. The materials and a project handbook were available to the teachers in the experimental school at all times. The weekly presence of the research assistant provided immediate response to their needs. In fact, it was often due to the expected weekly presence of the assistant that the materials were used in the interventions.

Given the nature of the project and the materials, it could be reasonably concluded that contextual factors resulted in serious weaknesses in the interventions, i.e.:

(1) Lack of APPLICATION such that the actual time-on-task was limited to about 35 minutes per week instead of the 60+ minutes suggested in many of the materials used;

(2) Lack of SEQUENCE in following the design for use of sequence driven materials. There was little evidence of skill building or at least this could not be tracked since many of the materials were used according to immediate and topical needs;

(3) Fairly frequent task INTERRUPTIONS in the sense of shifting priorities to other projects, e.g., career education, arts, micro-computers, or external agencies promoting isolated social action issues and projects;

(4) Lack of a sustainment of MOMENTUM and COHERENCY among instructors, students, and others in school.

SCHOOL ENVIRONMENT

Though a significant increase in research about school effectiveness has taken place in less than ten years (Goodlad 1984), it was beyond the scope, time, and energies involved in this research project to even minimally treat this subject. Nevertheless, since several of the measures used (BCAS, SPAS, PAS, and TVQ) did reveal attitudes about the school environment, it is important to reflect on both the nature of the two schools and inferences from the data.

Both schools were situated in a relatively new (15 year-old) suburban area that was reasonably self-contained with churches, small shopping areas, and a major community centre and recreational area. Socio-economic levels varied from minor subsidized housing to slightly above median income range (see table 2). There was good match in the control (C) and experimental (E) schools on size, stability of students, and staff configurations.

TABLE 2

DEMOGRAPHIC DATA ON COMMUNITY

ITEM	1979*	1980*	1981**	1983*
POPULATION				
Total	16,152	15,590	12,017	16,576
0 - 14 years	5,312	5,092	3,990	4,901
14 - 19 years	1,296	1,305	1,015	1,430
Population Density/km^2			4,995	
Husband-Wife Families			2,850	
Lone Parent Families			225	
Average No. Persons/Family			3.7	
Average No. Children/Family			1.7	
Mother Tongue				
English			8,550	
French			595	
Italian			700	
German			155	
Hungarian			120	
Other			1,890	
HOUSING				
Single	3,575	3,611	2,280	
Multiple	1,535	1,601	1,780	
Commercial/Industrial (units/props.)	392	437		
Farmland (properties)	32	35		
Parkland (hectares)	16.2	16.2		

* Data obtained from City of Windsor Planning Board.

** Data obtained from Statistics Canada.

Control School: Variance between this school and the E school was in the degree of structured learning experiences, and the leadership style of the principal. This school was built so that individual pods existed for 2-3 grade levels in given pods. The degree of unstructuredness was due to both the physical constraints and the teaching and leadership styles of teachers and principal. More structure was evident and a more controlled atmosphere were maintained and encouraged by the leaders. Few innovations were initiated during the course of the project. The arts were emphasized and conformity to parents' expectations for discipline was expected. Team work in the pods was expected. The atmosphere was generally congenial and calming. There was little difference from the typical self-contained, walled-classroom school.

Though the teachers were typically selected on the basis of mobility, they were not specifically trained for a modified open-concept school (Touzin-St. Pierre 1985) nor involved in additional graduate or qualification studies.

Experimental School: This school was considerably more unstructured as an open-concept school than C. During the project, some additional construction was completed in order to relieve the growth and the lack of pods. The atmosphere was less calming, at times quite distracting for teachers and students. Many innovations were tried by the principal in order to stimulate the learning environment. The teachers were usually involved with graduate, additional qualification, and leadership studies and possessed more advanced degrees.

Attention to instructional tasks was at times difficult to impossible and basic routines may have been too frequently disrupted. There was some evidence from the measurement data that a transition to more negative attitudes occurred toward schooling, subjects, and peers.

Caution should be exercised in inferring that all less structured schools result in negative attitudes. Real "situation variance" in which a portion of the variance is attributable to the particular situation in which the measurements were obtained was not specifically accounted for (Bridge, Judd, and Mock 1979).

The tentative results of this research simply corroborate much of the recent studies on socialization outcomes, e.g., "More controlling or highly structured classroom climate is the more facilitative of social-problem-solving skills than is a less structured, more autonomy-granting classroom atmosphere" (Anderson, Prawat, and Anderson 1985, p. 16).

This also seems to be congruent with Baumrind's findings on effective parenting, i.e., an authoritative style of parenting is associated with a greater development in children of self-confidence, independence, and achievement motivation (Baumrind 1968, 1972).

Moral Climate of School: One other component that frequently enters the picture when discussing affective and moral growth in schools is that of "moral atmosphere", sometimes referred to as "democracy in the school". Again, apart from a consideration of discipline infractions within the experimental school, there was no concerted attention paid to delineating and measuring the moral atmosphere of either school. For one thing, we still have inadequate measures for such, and more importantly, it assumes a collective endeavour to promote defined parameters of moral atmosphere.

The collective requires "community building" involving four elements (Power 1985; Higgins Power, and Kohlberg 1984): (1) the formation of a collective consciousness; (2) the acknowledgement of a community as a terminal value; (3) the extent to which members of a community commit themselves to upholding the shared norms and values of the group; and (4) the moral adequacy of the group's collective norms and values.

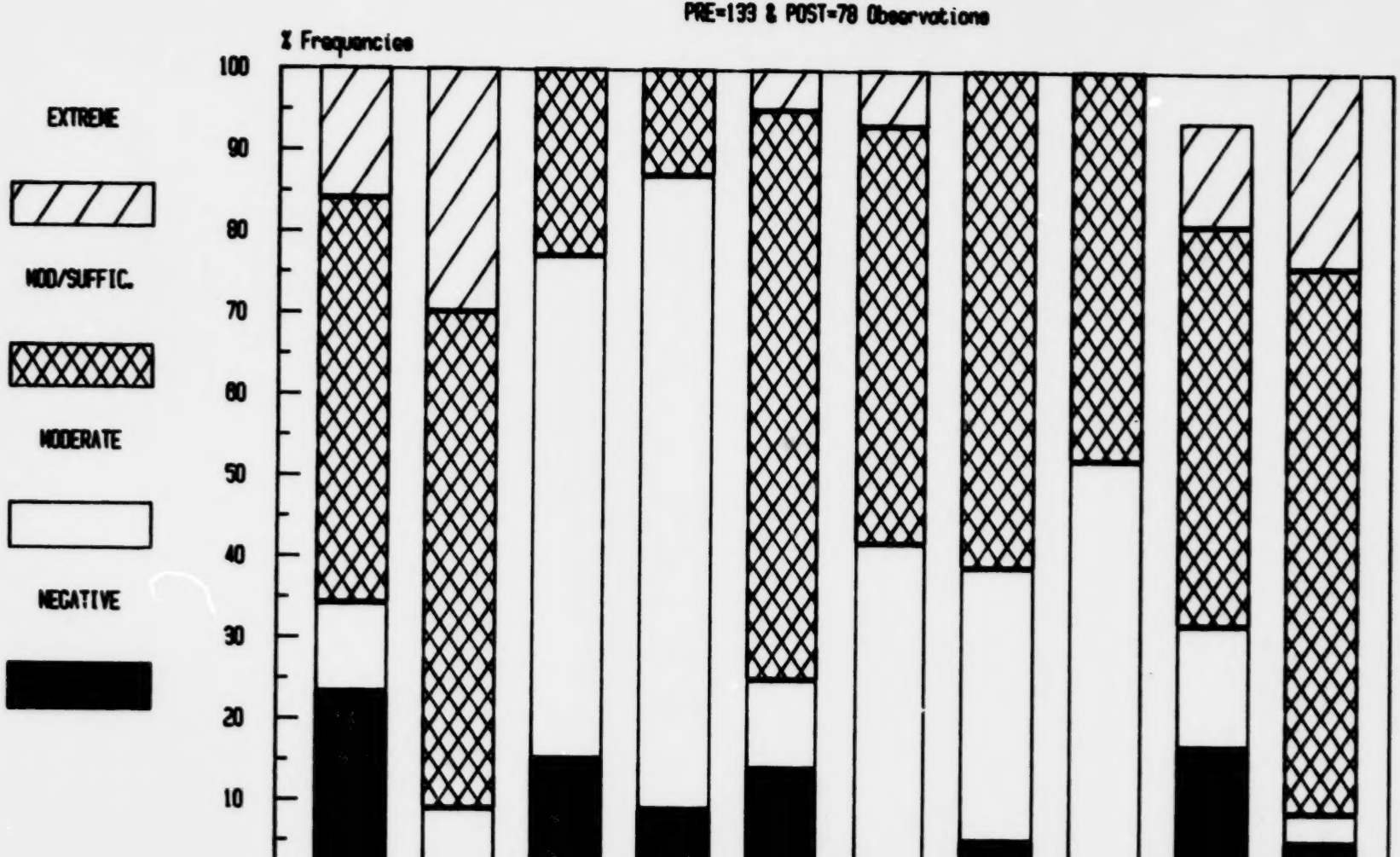
Classroom Interactions: Perhaps the closest that this study came to an analysis of the moral atmosphere in the school was the recording of the experimental teachers and students on 16 interactive items. Some 300 observations were made in E school during the instructional interventions during the project period. These were clustered into five categories, viz., atmosphere, discipline, praise, participation, and encouragement. Figure 1 expresses the following directions and changes:

(A) The atmosphere became more relaxed and conducive to positive interactions during the project period.

(B) The exercise of discipline moved from extremes to a moderate position.

FIGURE 1

CLASSROOM INTERACTIONS EXPERIMENTAL SCHOOL



(C) The use of praise and encouragement by teacher and peers moved to a reduction in praise. This may be the result of normal maturation and reluctance to praise others. As students mature, they may perceive praise of others as a form of weakness.

(D) Similarly, the degree of student participation in class as encouraged by the teacher or demonstrated by the students, moved from the extreme position to the moderate or middle position.

(E) Actions that demonstrated encouragement for new ideas and solutions moved from the negative and moderate positions to the sufficient and extreme positions.

Apart from maturational factors, two issues may have exerted a leveling or moderating influence. The introduction of an "after-school" detention reduced recidivism, and the elimination of crowded space by means of new construction reduced incidence of behavioural problems.

No observations were possible in the C school nor were records probed for comparable statistics on disciplinary problems

Teaching Staff: Though "teacher effectiveness" has undergone extensive research in the last decade (Ornstein 1984), there is insufficient evidence to enable one to sketch the ideal portrait. There is sufficient evidence to claim that teachers make a difference in the learning process of students. "The classroom behaviour of teachers and the atmosphere of classrooms can have pronounced effects on children's classroom social behavior, and on at least some related attitudes and motives" (Solomon et al. 1985).

Teachers who express warmth, supportiveness, provision for autonomy, and concern for students showed the strongest positive effects. This is perhaps why the values development of teachers seems so important and yet largely elusive in this project. A two-part questionnaire was administered to all the participating teachers in schools C and E. This was adopted from an earlier and more extensive study conducted by the research office of the Scarborough Board of Education (Dilling, Fieldstone, and Wideman 1977). Table 3 reflects the six value categories and the variance between the two groups of teachers.

TABLE 3 Part I: Self-Perception of Teachers' Values

Values	Windsor (N=11) [means]	Scarborough (N=78)
Competition	31.8	26.1
Obedience to Authority	33.1	30.5
Independent Decision Making	33.1	33.8
Creativity	28.9	30.2
Co-operation	32.5	34.8
Affection	29.6	38.3

The second part of the questionnaire asked about the respondent's perception of the "ideal" classroom in which these or other values would be demonstrated.

TABLE 3 Part II: Teachers' Self-Perception of Ideal Classroom

Values	Windsor	Scarborough
Competition	18.5	19.8
Obedience to Authority	29.1	30.8
Independent Decision Making	28.0	29.6
Creativity	36.3	36.0
Co-operation	36.0	37.2
Affection	36.1	35.7

Discussion:

An analysis of the means between the C and the E teachers indicated that there was no significant difference in the total responses. The strongest personal values revealed by the Windsor cohort were obedience to authority and independent decision-making; for the Scarborough cohort the value category was affection.

When responding to the "ideal" classroom, there was a shift to creativity, affection, and co-operation for the Windsor cohort, and to co-operation and creativity for the Scarborough cohort.

Similar to the Scarborough results, the Windsor respondents tended to have grown up in an urban environment, not to have active religious affiliations or to be involved in community, to have 6-20 years of teaching experience, and not to have taught outside Canada. The Windsor cohort had minimal travel experience outside North America and had no training in values education or development.

A second measure administered to the Windsor cohort was the Home and School Values Inventory developed in 1975 as a result of a research project conducted by T. A. Ryan, now of the University of South Carolina, Columbia. This inventory consists of 136 questions clustered into 17 categories: persistence, competition, success, good grades, manners, status, risks, work, honesty, religion, authority, family, leadership, materialism, altruism, friends, and discipline.

Again there were no significant differences between the C and E teachers on the total mean scores of 60.2 with an N of 9.

Table 3 Part III: Rankings of High/Low for Teachers' Home and School Values Inventory

Control High	Low	Experimental High	Low
good grades	work	risk-taking	work
honesty	competition	manners	discipline
risk-taking	leadership	altruism	authority
friends	materialism		

This would suggest that there is some agreement in the regard for conventual values in manners, good grades, and obedience to authority as well as in the idealized values of risk-taking, creativity, altruism, and friendship.

THE SCHOOL COMMUNITY

This section should be clearly distinguished from the actual "within school" environment. It discusses the actual community within which the E and C schools were situated. Every effort was made to acquire data about the many variables at work upon the students from outside the school buildings. At one point in the project, two graduate students in sociology became part of the project in order to assist in the data collection and to fulfil some of their own study and research purposes.

It was desirable that true ethnographic research be undertaken in this aspect of the project. That proved impossible due to the limitations of personnel and funding. What was achieved was that (a) a maximum of 27 community service persons (recreational, social, food, entertainment, and religious) and school maintenance staff were interviewed, (b) 133 parents of the E and C schools population were administered two questionnaires, (c) data was collected from the school board on vandalism costs for each year of the project, and (d) data was requested from the city police department but it was too difficult to access prior to the recent acquisition of a computer and sector distinctions.

Table 2 indicates that, in the areas served by the schools, Statistics Canada reports a population of some 12,000 with 4,000 children aged 0-14 years. It is doubtful that the 2% of single parent families in the 1981 census is an accurate figure.

Discussion:

(A) The interview procedure of some 27 persons living and/or working in the community - including service persons in the school - was undertaken by a graduate sociology student. Trends were not provided at the conclusion of his work. An analysis of the the reported data in table 4 indicates the respondents' perceptions of what influences children - usually others' children - in that community and whether that influence is in a positive or negative direction:

Valences

+ level of community recreational facilities
- insufficient use of these public services
- group or peer influences to frequent streets, poolroom, pinball hall, shopping centre
- lack of parental involvement in children's lives
- peer or societal pressure to steal, mostly from homes, and due to idleness and challenges

- vandalism is a problem due to boredom and peer pressure
+ children appear to be positive, polite
- parents are too lenient and society promotes this
- most favour corporal punishment in the schools and expect sex education to be addressed there
+ students appear to be altruistic in their relationships with seniors, staff, and peers.

There is certainly an indication of some ambivalence in these responses. This is probably due to the different types of interviewees that responded. Some were homemakers, others were active community leaders, and others were working in the school(s) but not living in the community.

(a) IMPULSIVITY = the level of tolerance for ambiguity, the needs of others, and aggressiveness. This shift represents a movement from more impulsive, uncooperative behaviours to more CONTROLLED, TOLERANT, STABLE, AND PREDICTABLE BEHAVIOUR!

(b) SOCIABILITY = the level of need and success in relating to others; social affiliation and nurturance. This shift represents a movement from less sociability to more MUTUAL NURTURANCE AND AFFILIATION!

TABLE 6
BARCLAY CLASSROOM CLIMATE INVENTORY: MEANS

FACTOR	CONTROLS		EXPERIMENTALS	
	PRE	POST	PRE	POST
TASK-ORDER	49.41	47.17	50.15	48.27
IMPULSIVITY	44.00	45.11	46.61	45.68
INTROVERSION	48.41	45.11	48.32	45.82
ENERGY ACTIVITY	48.12	47.17	49.49	50.32
SOCIABILITY	48.18	47.72	46.49	49.91
ENTERPRISING-DOMINANCE	47.71	51.06	49.10	48.59

TABLE 4
SUMMARY OF OPINIONS SURVEY OF SCHOOL, CHURCH, AND OTHER COMMUNITY OFFICIALS

QUESTION	ANSWERS	FREQUENCY
Does this community provide meaningful and adequate recreational facilities for the children?	Yes	20
	No	4
What are these activities?	Competitive sports	15
	Guides, Scouts, etc.	6
	Crafts, Cooking	5
	Non-competitive sports	4
	Miscellaneous	9
Do you believe that this community is one of the best and safest areas to raise children?	Yes, fairly safe	11
	Somewhat safe	4
	No	1
Why do you think this is the case?	Community Spirit	3
	Parents	3
	Negative attitudes	3
	Housing, Incomes	1
Do the children congregate in groups?	Yes	22
	No	2
	Don't know	2
Where do they spend their time in the neighbourhood?	Street, friends, block	9
	Poolroom, pinball	9
	School, parks	6
	Mac's Milk	5
	Community Centre	5
	Shopping Centre	5
	Wheels	3
Are there any significant leaders in evidence?	Yes	9
	No	4
	Don't know	4

TABLE 4 continued

QUESTION	ANSWERS	FREQUENCY
Do you perceive that these elementary school children are much of a problem in your community?	Yes	5
	No	16
	Don't know or minor	5
If not, why not?	Kept active	1
If yes, why?	No respect	1
	Presence of a hang-out	1
In what ways can parents help to improve the general attitudes and behaviours of their children in respects of community life in Forest Glade?	Parental involvement	16
	Parental supervision and placement of limits	5
	Teaching of respect	4
	Teaching of responsibility	4
	Parental example	2
	Parental love	1
Do you believe that stealing is a problem in this community?	Yes	12
	No	7
	Don't know	8
What is stolen?	Small household goods	9
	Small appliances/bikes	6
	Christmas decorations	3
	Candy, etc.	2
	Money	2
	Jewellry	2
How often does this occur?	Yearly	4
	Monthly, bimonthly	2
	Daily	2
What is your estimate of the costs involved?	Thousands	7
How do you deal with this problem?	Deal with kid directly	8
	Call police/authority	5
	Lock my house (protective)	4
	Talk to parents	3
	Tell neighbours	2
	Give sermons/lectures	2

TABLE 4 continued

QUESTION	ANSWERS	FREQUENCY
What do you think the reason is for this behaviour?	Killing time/being smart	15
	Parents working/not there	7
	To have things/money	6
	Drugs/alcohol	4
	Adult prodding	1
Do you feel the children here have too many freedoms?	Yes	8
	No	3
Do you think the children need more supervision and discipline?	Yes	8
	No	4
Is this a group activity?	Yes	11
	No	2
How big is this group?	No answer	10
	2 - 4	6
Do you believe that vandalism is a problem in this community?	Yes	13
	No	5
	Don't know, or Was	8
Why? What is the most prevalent type of vandalism as you see it?	Trees, landscaping	10
	Littering, graffiti	8
	Cars, private property	8
	Breakage, damage	6
	Break-ins	4
How much cost is involved?	$ 10,000 - 25,000	4
Has your property ever been vandalised?	Yes	7
	No	5
What did you do about it?	Yell/talk	4
	Nothing	3
	Discuss (P.T.A., etc.)	1
What do you think the reason is for this kind of activity?	Boredom, peer pressure	20
	Parents/teachers/society	6
	Drugs	1

TABLE 4 continued

QUESTION	ANSWERS	FREQUENCY
Is this a group activity	Yes	12
	No	1
Would you care to add any other observations about the elementary students in this area?	Positive, polite, good	12
	Parental, societal laissez-fair	8
	They're O.K., average	5
	No open concept schools!	2
Do you feel that students have a lot of interests in the community?	Yes	3
	No	5
Do you think students value education?	Yes	5
	No	3
Do you think students should be encouraged to achieve higher goals?	Yes	11
Do you feel students should be permitted to talk without permission?	Yes	3
	No	8
Do you feel students misbehave as a result of fear and guilt?	Yes	7
	No	3
Do you feel teachers and other school personnel should answer questions about sex?	Yes	9
Should corporal punishment be permitted in school?	Yes	7
	No	2
Do you feel T.V. has a bad influence on students?	Yes	7
	No	2
Do children praise and encourage each other?	Yes	5
	No	4
Should parents choose their children's friends?	Yes	3
	No	2
	Should guide	6
Do you feel the students here are well mannered, well moraled?	Yes	4
	No	4

TABLE 4 continued

QUESTION	ANSWERS	FREQUENCY
Do you feel the students here are given enough responsibility? How well do they handle these responsibilities?	Yes	8
	No	1
	Handled O.K. - generally	
Are students praised for tasks well done? What type of praise do you use?	Yes	11
	Verbal	11
	Award	7
Should children be scolded in private or whenever a scolding is deserved, whether others are present or not?	Private	7
	Public	2
Is it important for children to be well liked by their peers?	Yes	9
	No	2
Are students behaviours influenced by their peers?	Yes	9
	No	2
Are religious teachings prevalent in the students of this school?	Yes	8
	No	3
Do students share their belongings with each other?	Yes	8
	No	2
Are your ideas about religion one of the important parts of your philosophy of life?	Yes	9
	No	2
Do students appear to listen to each other?	Yes	8
	No	3
Do students question each other in a non-threatening way?	Yes	10
	No	1
Do you often see signs of respect for a) peers	Yes	8
	No	2
b) school personnel	Yes	7
	No	2
c) property	Yes	5
	No	4

TABLE 4 continued

QUESTION	ANSWERS	FREQUENCY
How do the students feel about senior citizens?	All positive answers	
How do they handle their free time?	Well	7
	Poorly	3
Do many students offer help freely?	Yes	8
	No	2
How often do you see signs of caring?	Often	7
	Seldom	2

Note: two separate populations of individuals answered these questionnaires. In cases where questions were similar, answers were grouped together resulting in N of up to 27, otherwise N = 11 or 16. In general, unless otherwise indicated, no special note was made of NO ANSWERS.

(B) The Home and School Values Inventory was administered to 77 parents of C school student participants and 56 of those of E school. The occupational data indicated that 36% of the respondents were homemakers, 11% not given, 7% in sales, 6% in management, 5% teachers, 4% engineers and the rest scattered from toolmakers to typists.

The 17 value categories clustered by Ryan are quite similar in results to those of the teachers of the two schools as indicated elsewhere. These parents perceived that the following values were most important to them:

good grades	risk-taking
honesty	religion
altruism	

Those value categories that they ranked lowest were:

status	work
leadership	materialism
discipline	

(C) The public Board of Education recorded the number of incidents and the damage costs for the schools during the period of the research, i.e., three to four years. These are classified as acts of vandalism that excluded thefts.

TABLE 5

VANDALISM RECORDS FOR CASE STUDY

Year	School C		School E	
	Cost $	Number of inicidents	Cost	Number of incidents
1	878	7	623	10
2	133	3 (2)	542	5
3	1622	14 (7)	469	5 (1)
4	2000	15 (8)	448	5

[( ) = incidents during summer non-occupied months]

(D) One other survey was conducted by a graduate student in sociology in pursuit of a master's thesis (Goodwin 1981). He administered a Parental Attitudinal Survey adapted from Shaw and Wright's Scales for Measurement of Attitudes (1967) to 33 parents of the E school's participants.

There were 8 subscales or categories of attitudes towards: educational practices, child centred policies, interest/involvement, home discipline, children's leisure activities, peers and siblings, religion, and community. There were a total of 86 items for these scales and 11 informational or background items. The results of the socio-economic information indicated that:

- 20% more women than men responded and were from the 30-34 age range
- 73% are Canadian in origin with 90% living in the community from 1-7 years
- 66% are secondary school graduates and some college or vocational education
- 75% were married 11-18 years with 2-3 children
- 50% were earning less than $23,000 and classed as "working class"

Figure 2 indicates the frequency distribution for the attitudinal subcatagories. The sample of parents communicated that their attitudes toward:

Educational practices	were more	traditional than progressive
child centered policies	"	favourable than negative
home discipline	"	controlled than permissive
child's leisure activities	"	slightly concerned than very concerned or unconcerned
peers and siblings	"	slightly important than very important
religion	"	important than not
community	"	favourable than unfavourable

Discussion:

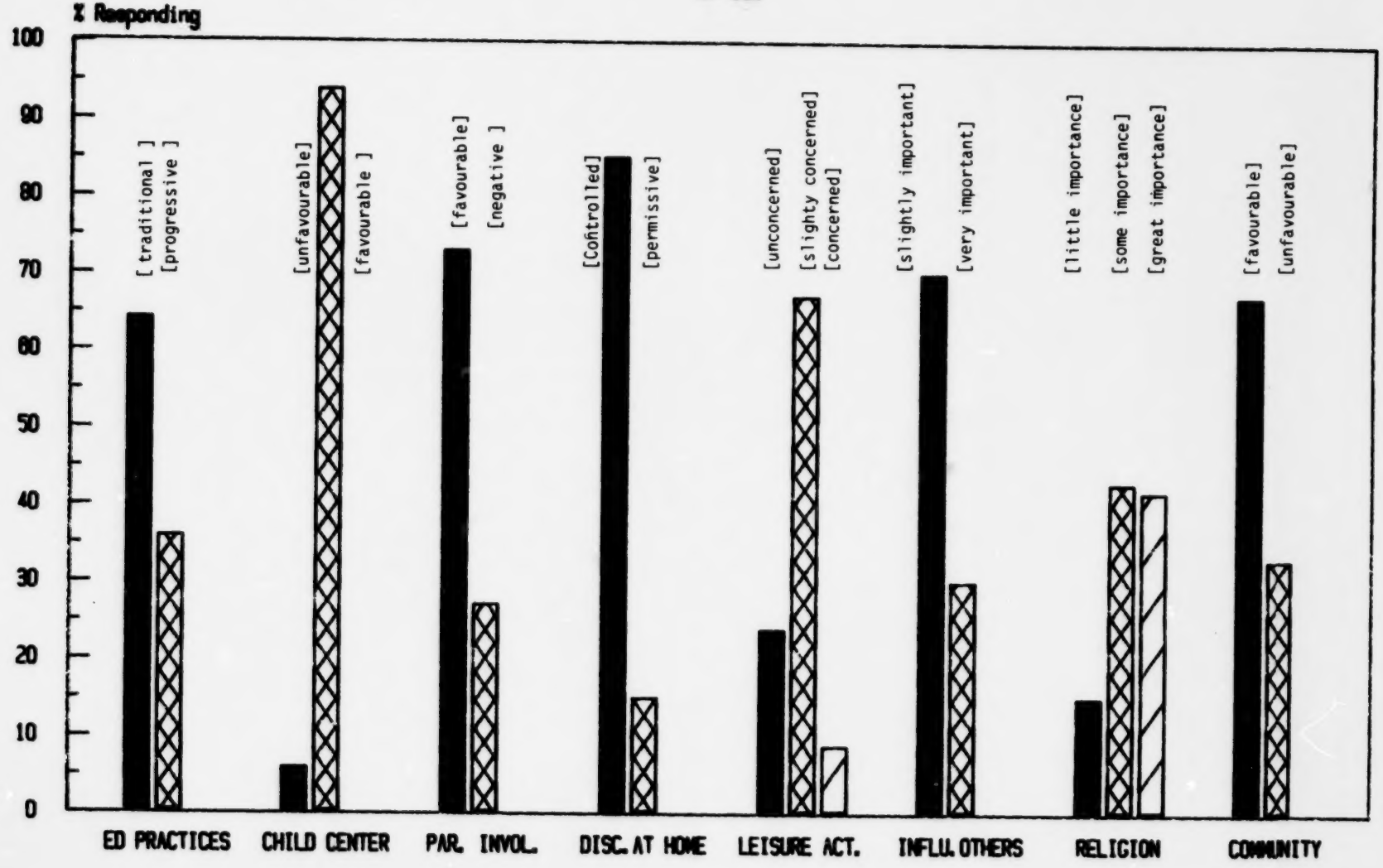
Opinion questionnaires are subject to the usual problems of receiving responses that the respondent thinks are appropriate to the questioner or to conventional society. The questions are also sometimes structured so that the type of answer is inevitable. Thus, it would be inappropriate to place too much confidence in the raw written data.

What the parental surveys do suggest is that a moderate to conservative posture has been taken on most clustered value categories. There is a sense of decency and civility that emerges from the responses. Most parents wish their or others' children to be raised with authority, structure, and thence to behave with respect and prosocial actions.

FIGURE 2

PARENTAL ATTITUDINAL SURVEY (1980)

N= 133



There are those who dislike the acts of misbehaviour when they impinge on their lives and think that somebody else, especially the parents, should be supervising these children so that such acts will not occur. On the other hand, these same persons claim that the community and the children are well behaved and good order prevails.

Certainly, the vandalism figures do not present any cause for alarm given that there is a small number of incidents and in the C school the increase occurred during the summer months. That school neighbourhood does have a higher percentage of single parent and both parents working. This judgement is in comparison to other figures.

There seems to be an awareness that such factors as peer pressure and television do have a negative effect on some of the behaviours. There is also the perception that structure and control are more important than open-concept types of education. Most think that this community is a very acceptable place to live. Most think that religion is important to their lives and to the character of the community.

Data from social service agencies and the police might enlarge the picture of this community. But those data are neither easily accessible nor interpretable.

In a number of cases there is a very close split on the opinions of agreement or disagreement. This would suggest that we have a very modest and satisfied population.

RESULTS OF MEASUREMENTS

Outcome Measurements:

We have already noted in table 1 the population configurations of the pretests and we have described each of the measures. Issues of reliability and validity were addressed in the preparation of the design. Sources of reviews and critiques, e.g, Buros or Borich and Madden, were consulted for validation and guidance. The following references to the results will use the abbreviations already noted for the measures.

Due to fluctuations in the subjects, the context, the teachers' use of interventions, attrition, and other factors, it was not usually possible to identify and match scores of the same subjects before and after interventions. Hence, the scores of subjects in the pre-intervention groups were randomly matched with the scores of subjects of the same post-intervention group. Significantly different results between control and experimental scores therefore indicate substantial effects were missed due to the inability to match the scores of individuals.

To obtain equality in cell sizes, reduction procedures were necessary. This was done by an appropriate statistical procedure. Graphs are provided for the results of those measures that demonstrated some significant differences based upon comparison of means and the use of t-tests.

I. The BCAS was selected as relevant to several factors in the interventions (Meyer 1977; Barclay 1977). After a small pilot test, it was decided that it would only be administered in the pretesting to the fourth and sixth graders. It was too difficult for second graders. As has been indicated, the post-testing was unable to track the original sixth graders who were now dispersed in several urban secondary schools. Thus, the population numbers represent 17 pre- and 18 post-test students in C school and 41 pre- and 22 post-test students in E school.

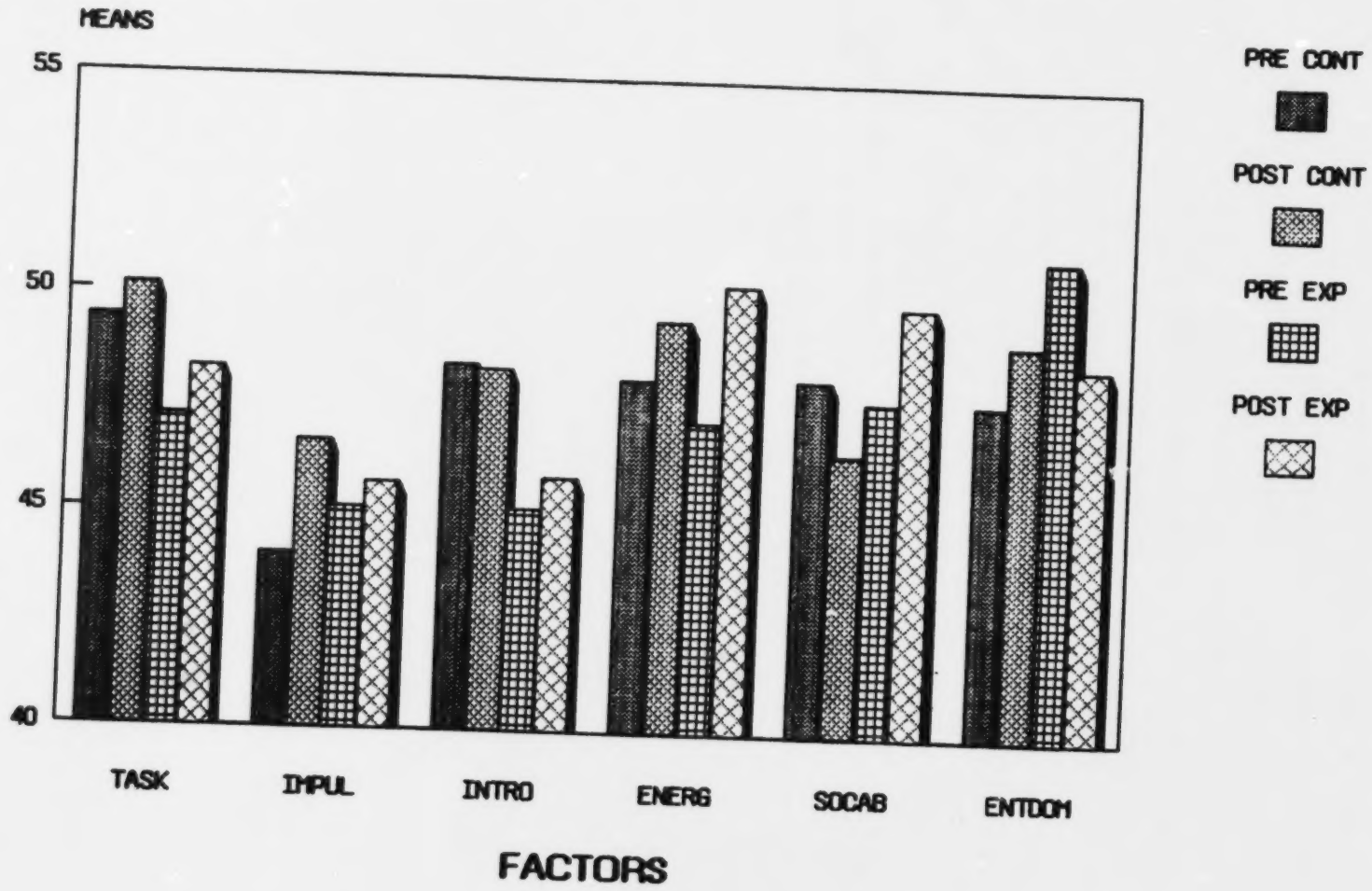
Of the six factors: task-order (achievement-motivation), impulsivity, introversion, energy-activity, sociability-affiliation, and enterprising-dominance, ONLY IMPULSIVITY and SOCIABILITY showed significant variance (tables 6 and 7; figure 3).

TABLE 7
BARCLAY CLASSROOM CLIMATE INVENTORY: ANALYSES OF COVARIANCE

FACTOR	F SCORE	PROBABILITY
TASK-ORDER	0.051	not significant
IMPULSIVITY	10.989	0.01
INTROVERSION	0.006	not significant
ENERGY-ACTIVITY	0.192	not significant
SOCIABILITY	1.496	0.25
ENTERPRISING-DOMINANCE	1.177	not significant

FIGURE 3

BARCLAY CLASSROOM CLIMATE INVENTORY



II. The SPAS was administered in both the C and E schools to the second, fourth, and sixth graders (pretest), and fifth and seventh graders (post-test). The six factors that are probed are:

(1) Perception of reading and spelling ability (RESPE);

(2) Perception of penmanship and neatness (PENEA);

(3) General school satisfaction (SCSAT);

(4) Perception of arithmetic ability (ARITH) ;

(5) Perception of confidence in academic ability (CONFI);

(6) Perception of general ability (GENAB).

The means results, table 8 and figures 4 and 5, indicate that perceptions of GENERAL SCHOOL SATISFACTION (SCSAT) moved significantly in a positive direction for the control school! This would suggest that there was something in the school environment that promoted more positive perceptions of school satisfaction.

The level of probability lessens confidence in the factors of confidence in academic ability (CONFI) and in reading and spelling ability (RESPE). The means scores correlate to the norms of the SPAS generated by the authors (Boersma et al. 1978).

TABLE 8

STUDENT'S PERCEPTION OF ABILITY SCALE

ITEM	PRETEST		POST-TEST		F	P
	Cont.	Exp'l	Cont.	Exp'l		
SQ RESPE	2.35	6.73	8.38	7.75	2.649	.25
SQ PENEA	3.68	5.88	7.71	7.29	0.373	N.S.
SQ SCSAT	2.44	5.06	7.14	5.86	4.023	.05
SQ ARITH	2.76	5.68	8.79	8.35	1.063	N.S.
SQ CONFI	2.14	3.23	4.05	4.25	2.299	.10
SQ GENAB	3.60	5.98	8.33	7.95	0.235	N.S.

KEY: SQ RESPE = Perception of ability in READING AND SPELLING

PENEA = " PENMANSHIP AND NEATNESS

SCSAT = " GENERAL SCHOOL SATISFACTION

ARITH = " ARITHMETIC

CONFI = " CONFIDENCE

GENAB = " GENERAL ABILITY

FIGURE 4

STUDENT'S PERCEPTION OF ABILITY SCALE

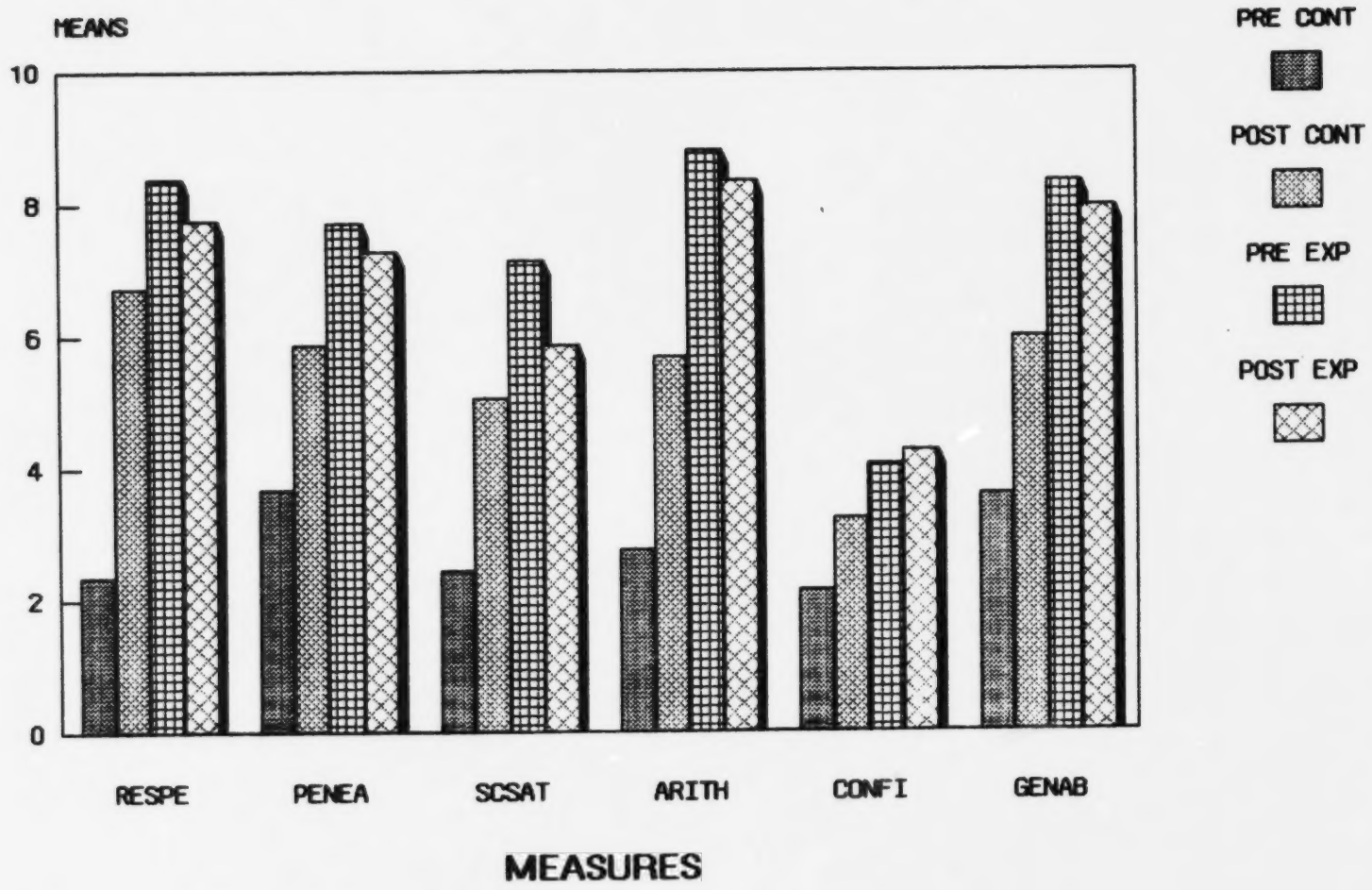
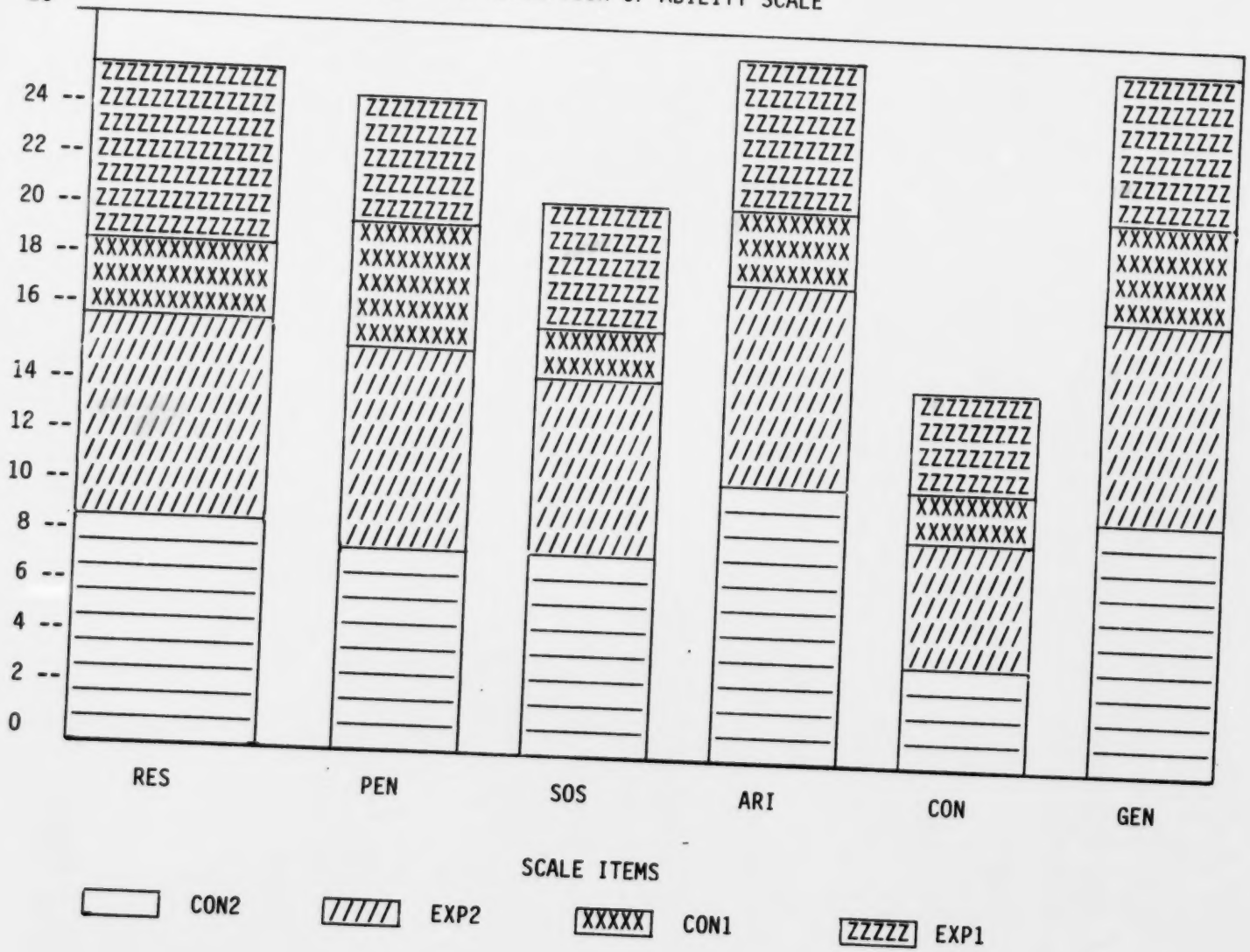


FIGURE 5
STUDENT'S PERCEPTION OF ABILITY SCALE



III. The MOTEC measure yielded results of significant variance in four factor areas (table 9, figure 6). During the project period, the experimental cohort:

(a) became MORE YIELDING TO TEMPTATION;

(b) moved in the direction of SOCIONOMY implying more attention to peer group norms and sanctions (Bull 1969; Coates 1984);

(c) increased their emotional sensitivity of GUILT and FEAR after the transgression of norms and especially for females in Grades 5 and 6;

(d) advocated more SEVERE PUNISHMENT for offences.

IV. The MSA measure yielded results of significant variance in two of the seven factors probed (table 9, figures 7 and 8). The experimental cohort shifted on:

(a) factor I consisting of 10 items about the degree of assistance from significant others in the home. MORE ASSISTANCE was given at home over the period. This may be attributed to the interventions or the differences in the domestic situation of C and E students;

(b) factor V in a DECREASE IN CONVENTIONAL MALE STEREOTYPING. This may be attributed to the interventions and/or to the potential effects of some career education activities related to program in the E school.

TABLE 9

MORALITY TEST FOR CHILDREN: TESTS FOR SIGNIFICANCE USING STUDENT'S t-TEST

MEASURE	MEANS				t-SCORE					
	PRE		POST							
	Con'l (1)	Exp'l (2)	Con'l (3)	Exp'l (4)	1 vs 2	1 vs 3	1 vs 4	2 vs 3	2 vs 4	3 vs 4
RES	-7.19	-11.40	-11.79	-16.87	1.394	1.429	3.332*	0.134	2.108*	1.817
MOR	15.67	14.49	18.23	17.69	0.855	2.095*	1.849	3.232*	3.127*	0.645
FEL	4.20	3.40	4.65	4.59	1.932	1.223	1.149	3.486*	3.639*	0.215
CON	2.61	-0.47	3.31	2.46	1.091	0.232	0.053	1.474	1.237	0.332
SEV	15.22	12.53	16.03	16.08	1.913	0.690	0.826	3.123*	3.607*	0.074

* Significant at the .05 level.

$N_1 = 94$; $N_2 = 124$: $N_3 = 106$; $N_4 = 150$. Critical t at .20 = 1.289; at .10 = 1.658; at .05 = 1.980, at .02 = 2.358; at .01 = 2.617; at .001 = 3.373.

RES = Resistance to temptation; MOR = Moral Development; FEL = Feelings re transgressions; CON = Confession: SEV = Severity of Punishment.

FIGURE 6

MORALITY TEST FOR CHILDREN

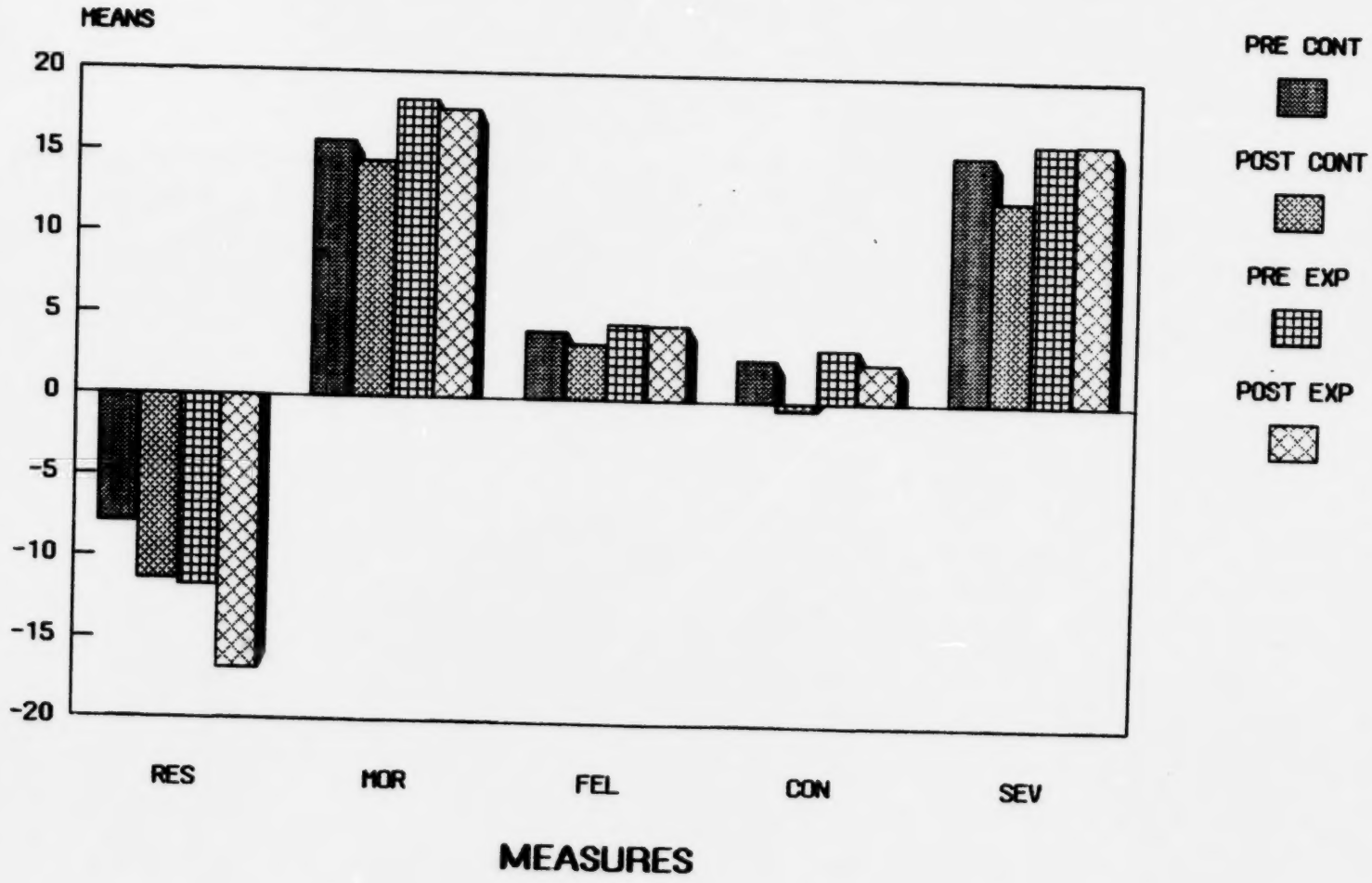


TABLE 10

MEASURE OF SOCIAL AFFECT: TESTS OF SIGNIFICANCE USING ANALYSIS OF COVARIANCE

ITEM	MEANS				F	P
	Post		Pre			
	Control	Exp'l	Control	Exp'l		
SQ I	21.98	23.65	11.4	17.58	5.116	.05
SQ II	27.74	17.74	6.69	12.59	3.525	.10
SQ III	13.4	27.38	8.86	18.35	2.274	.25
SQ IV	5.75	5.13	0.88	2.56	1.908	N.S.
SQ V	2.51	3.41	-0.46	1.89	5.441	.05
SQ VI	2.1	2.26	0.33	1.01	1.743	N.S.
SQ VII	1.64	2.01	-2.40	0.10	1.796	N.S.

FIGURE 7

MEAN MEASURES OF SOCIAL AFFECT

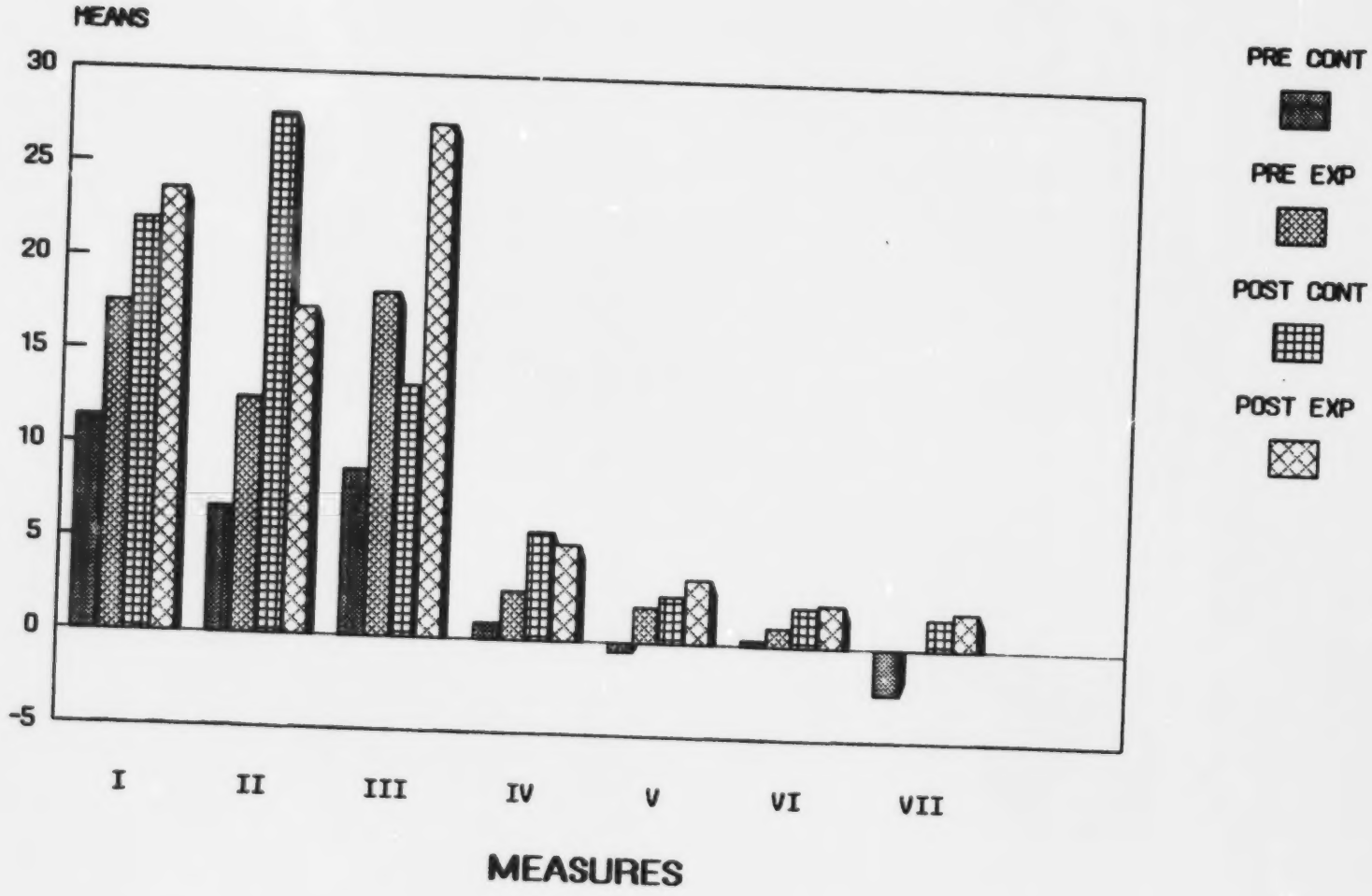
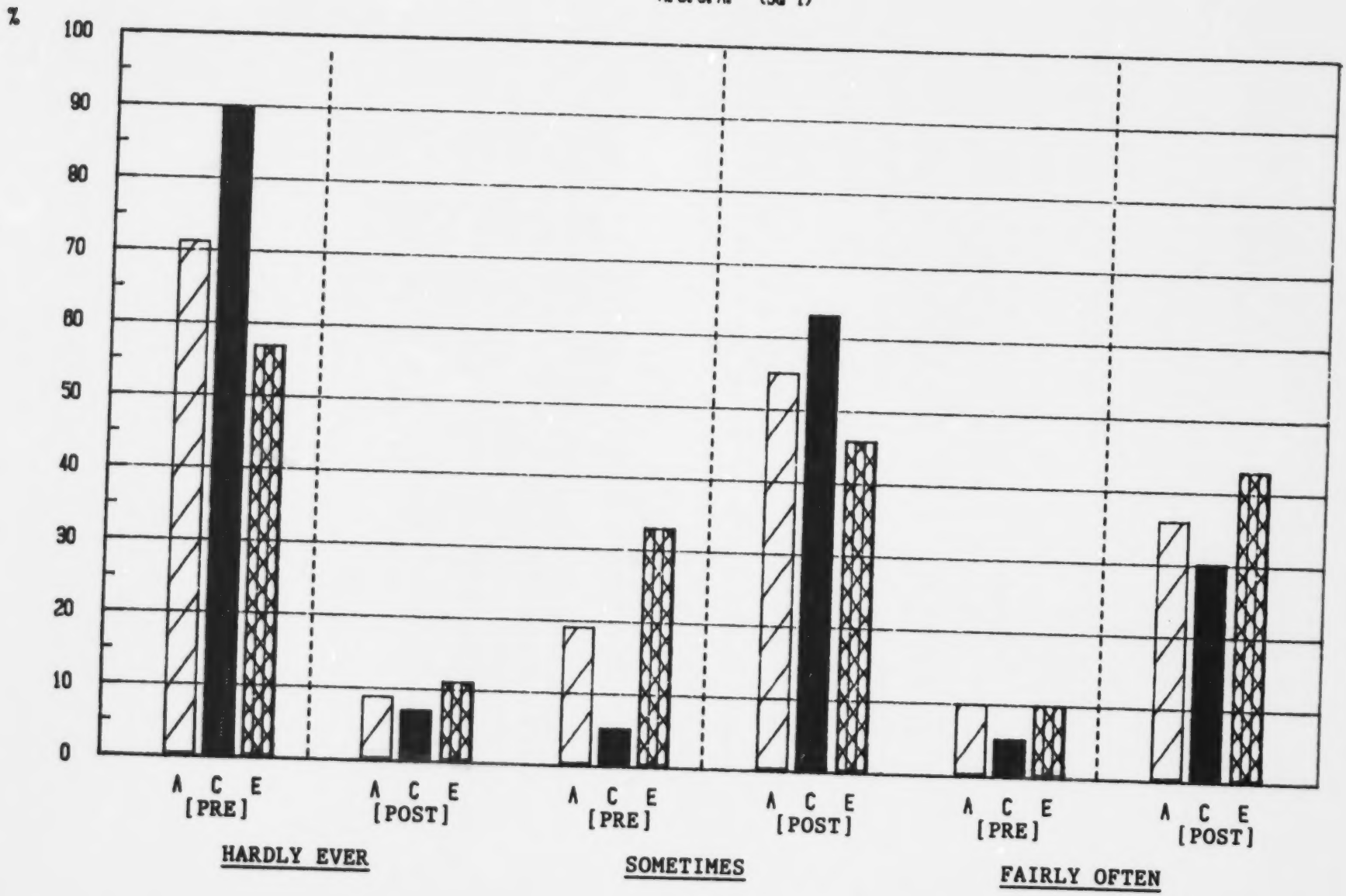


FIGURE 8

AMOUNT OF HELP OBTAINED AT HOME

M.O.S.A. (SQ I)



The results of an analysis of the data for five other measures and components are indicated as follows:

MEASURE	SECTION OF REPORT
HSVI	The School Community, Discussion (B)
PAS	" " " " (D)
TVQ	The Teaching Staff
COI	Classroom Interactions
GENDER DIFF.	Appendix I

IMPLEMENTATION MEASUREMENTS

Two methods of obtaining data on the frequency and degree of implementation of instructional interventions were used.

(a) Classroom observations were undertaken some 20 times per academic year by a research assistant who had both appropriate level teaching experience and observation orientation. Since financial limitations prohibited more than once-per-week visitations, the observer usually rotated weekly visits to the 3-6 classes in the E school.

(b) Self-report records were requested from the participating teachers on their observations of the delivery and impact of the interventions.

The results suggest that while all materials were readily available on site or easily obtained, the teachers tended to opt for one series or item and pass it on to a colleague after satisfactory use. The participating teachers tended to only apply the interventions when the observer was present. They did not systematically complete the self-report records.

There were two occasions each academic year during which professional development was administered: at the beginning of the academic year in late September or early October and at the end of the year in May and June.

These sessions were used to:

(a) introduce new staff, research assistants, and project leader;
(b) introduce and distribute instructional materials, and assign or suggest sequence;
(c) solicit and obtain the commitment of principal and staff or follow-up on private interviews;
(d) outline details for any administration of measures;
(e) obtain verbal written reports of the teachers about their experiences and reactions to the project;
(f) affirm the teachers' efforts and their part in the total operation of the project.

The teachers did report that over the life of the project they noticed that certain students and the students as groups or classes did seem to develop prosocial behaviours. There seemed to be more concern for others, respect for self and others, regard for property, and fewer serious discipline problems. Students appeared weak in listening skills or, at least, in the application of such skills.

DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

> It is more important to pay attention to the magnitude of the differences in the means relative to what one expects to accomplish (Cline and Feldmesser p. 66).

Educational researchers continue to caution one another that to attempt to achieve scientific objectivity and utilization of the experimental model without major problems is unrealistic and inadvisable. As we have described, the contextual variables including the unexpected are so powerful that the best of intentions are unrealizable. The original design was altered to suit the circumstances of population, time, and loss of subjects. The interventions were not regularly and systematically applied as intended. The priorities of school and experimental instructors shifted even during an academic year.

The project attempted to address five hypotheses (cf. section on "The Problem: Scope of Research"). These are restated with the results. THAT AS A RESULT OF:

[1] experiences gained from teacher directed interventions, students in Grades 2, 4, and 6 will demonstrate significant gains in (a) awareness of their feelings and values, (b) sensitivity to the needs of others, (c) problem-solving skills, and (d) prosocial behaviours.

Results: Gains for (a), (b), and (c) were not significant but did yield modest increases; (d) can only be inferred from teacher anecdotal reports and lack of vandalism damage.

[2] the application of these classroom interventions, the instructional environment will facilitate the desired outcomes of knowledge, skills, and behaviours.

Results: Evidence does not support the hypothesis. Probably due to the lack of frequency, the shifting priorities, and the degree of non-structure, there were less positive effects. This corroborates evidence of research on open-concept schools.

[3] the inservice component and the use of the selected interventions, the teachers of the experimental cohort will develop enabling skills commensurate with the project objectives.

Results: Evidence did support this hypothesis. Since the teachers were above average in formal education, were active participants in a variety of school events and interests, were good candidates for upward mobility, and had some previous exposure to the area of project concern, it is questionable to what degree causation can be attributed to the inservice and/or application of interventions. The fact that the project was in place and under weekly monitoring might have had more effect.

[4] the use of a unique combination of measurement instruments, the assessment of the affective domain will be improved and permit a more accurate degree of generalizability.

Results: The evidence only partially supports this hypothesis. The evidence is largely circumstantial since there are few, if any, comparative projects using similar measurement. The variables do need more careful identification and control and easier computer applications. Clustering and more careful match to the materials used in the interventions need attention. Attrition problems in the initial Grade 6 group were experienced by the third year. There is a need of cross-factor analysis and triangulation.

[5] information acquired from parents and community samples, it can be demonstrated that the home and the community environments are significant variables in affective development.

Results: The information collected from a one-time survey does not permit major conclusions about variables external to school. The extant literature does support such. More messaging of the data is necessary here.

The statistical differences have been noted in the discussion section. To accommodate cell sizes and retesting of different respondents, appropriate analysis of covariance was used. The interventions upon the E school did have some positive outcomes and they cannot be attributed to normal maturation. The design and the statistical procedures attempted to control for that factor.

In addition to the controlling factors in design and procedures, it can be noted that the size of the population was generally adequate. Ethnographic or qualitative methods were minimally used due to difficulties in support services, i.e. funding for competent ethnographers or purchase of time of observers.

There appeared to be no contamination in the control cohort situation nor by the observers in the experimental situation. The application of interventions was probably guaranteed by the presence of the observer once per week or every two weeks.

There is a TENTATIVE CERTAINTY that the program along with other factors caused the results. The outcomes did not match the expectations in the hypotheses for the most part for the various reasons suggested. In some cases the results were negative in attitudinal change but there are many other forces simultaneously at work that may be part of the collective cause for those results.

RECOMMENDATIONS

> In effect, character education in schools infrequently goes beyond its own rhetoric, except for the periodic, well-intentioned exhortations by principals. (Sizer 1984, p. 124.)

If educational research is expected to have some influence upon policy making, it is important to provide suggestions or recommendations that may be typically beyond the descriptive research format. Hence, the recommendations that follow are the result of reflection on the entire process of this particular research project and on years of experience in similar activities.

Indeed, Sizer is correct in his assessment of one segment of schooling in the USA. To generalize in terms of the Canadian scene would similarly result in minimal evidence for significant implementation of prosocial (moral, values, citizenship, personal, social) education.

If educational jurisdictions truly wish to attend to that significant domain of student's development, then it is recommended that:

SCHOOL SYSTEMS AND SCHOOL ENVIRONMENTS PRIORITIZE SOCIAL EDUCATION AS EQUAL OR SUPERIOR TO ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT.

It is suggested that such prioritization take place at all the decision-making levels of the system, i.e., by the trustees, appropriate administrators, school management, parental support groups, teachers, and professional teacher groups. Where there is the strong potential for conflict and adversarial activity, it is feasible to form an advisary committee that would represent the various constituencies and also act as a buffer group to inquiries and protestations.

In the process of prioritization, it is advisable to take into acount at least six operative factors for change:

(1) EXTERNAL INFLUENCE: semi or full policy statements of external agencies, e.g., Ministry of Education, teacher's professional groups, parental groups, that promote such a priority.

(2) INTERNAL POWER: approvals and support of major decision-makers within the educational system, school(s), and classrooms.

(3) SHELTER CONDITIONS: protection and support from key personnel within the system who will both promote and defend the priority. Here an advisory committee would fulfil some of that role.

(4) ROLE OF KEY PERSONS: it is important to identify what functions and characteristics the key actors would be required to fulfil and for what period of time.

(5) ADEQUATE TIMING: it is crucial that any curriculum or program project be given sufficient time to be appropriated by the targeted clientele. Depending upon the size of the system and other contextual variables, a minimum of five academic years is suggested. Many worthy programs have failed due to inadequate time for true implementation, management by crisis, and shifting priorities.

(6) RECEPTIVE CLIENTS: the importance of teacher and student receptivity to the innovation cannot be overestimated. If teachers are convinced, committed, and motivated to implement the priority, then students will also be challenged and motivated to the degree that clear expectations are assured.

This study only marginally met these criteria in the sense that the process was more exploratory and changed based on changing contextual variables, e.g., lack of continuity in school priorities, research assistance, and teaching personnel. The time dimension was reflected in the inability to track the original cohort of sixth graders as they moved into different schools for ninth grade. It also resulted in a larger post-testing cohort with a switch from selected randomized students to the entire class.

In spite of the difficulty in controlling variables in this study, the single-most significant finding was that the interventions did not appear to have the intended or expected result in promoting affective development. It is strongly recommended that:

SELECTED AFFECTIVE CLASSROOM INTERVENTIONS BE SYSTEMATICALLY AND CONSISTENTLY APPLIED.

Our analysis indicated that while the parameters of the instructional materials used in the interventions suggested regular weekly and multiple hourly applications, the teachers usually applied them during the once-per-week visit of the research assistant for 60-90 minutes. The context dictated primary attention to perceived required curricula and to shifting priorities.

Because teachers usually respond to a "crowded curricula" by adhering to what is most familiar and comfortable, the "infusion" method is not very productive. It is necessary to have specific points of contact wjth the topics taught in the core and to appropriate periods of time for weekly delivery. Otherwise, trivialization occurs characterized in the slogan, "TOO LITTLE, TOO INFREQUENTLY".

This study provides at least three implications for future research:

(1) CAREFUL DESIGN AND ANALYSIS OF MULTIPLE-TIME-SERIES RESEARCH. The control of variables over a longer period of student growth is necessary in order to determine more rigorously the effects of such selected interventions and/or other contextual variables. This is certainly one of the important dimensions of the precedent-setting prosocial developmental project in San Ramon, California (Solomon et al. 1985; Meyer 1984).

(2) IDENTIFICATION OF COMPATIBLE VARIABLES IN MEASURES AND INTERVENTION MATERIALS. It is evident that multiple measures must be used in a comprehensive assessment of social and affective programs. The design of the research will assure that subjects are available for a time-series experiment and that appropriate tracking can take place. This selection of variables will also be influenced by the scope of the assessment insofar as contextual variables are incorporated.

(3) ATTENTION TO SOCIAL CLIMATE VARIABLES AND TO PATH ANALYSIS TECHNIQUES. While this study has attempted to gather data from the larger social context, i.e., parents and community, it confronted restrictions in a multiple analysis and correlations to student subject and contextual variables.

Research has demonstrated that social climate variables, i.e., student-teacher and student-student relationships, should be considered with personality traits, i.e., competitive and co-operative teacher and student orientations. Likewise, social climate variables such as peer influences (Coates 1984) and video media influences should be correlated to classroom instructional variables.

It is now feasible and possible to both replicate and carefully design research projects on prosocial development that will provide results of greater exactitude. These should guide policy makers in promoting and prescribing educational priorities in the future in order to respond to the societal demands that are counterproductive to human growth and development for an improved citizenry and society.

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APPENDIX I: GENDER DIFFERENCES ON THREE MEASURES

As was noted in the introduction, there has been a growing concern about the nature of gender differences in affective education and research (Mishra and Calmes 1985). Hence, a return to the data of measured groups of the MOTEC, MSA, and SPAS was done and t-tests comparing the scores of the males versus the females were conducted.

Caution should be exercised in drawing any valid conclusions about the differential effects of interventions on the pre- and post-test groups (male vs. female) as only the scores of individual subjects were used. Age, maturation, and socialization in sex roles would account for any differences. Table 11 lists only those items in which the t-score indicated a probability of less than .20 that the differences in the means were due to chance. Only those items which are significant at the .05 or better level are signalled.

Some Differences:

	Measure	male	female
Younger (pre-test groups)	MSA		+
	Items:	2= worry about self-confidence 4= female stereotyping	
[+ = higher scores]	MOTEC	+	
	Items:	Severity of punishment	
	MSA	Male stereotyping	
Older (post-test groups)	MSA		+
	Items:	2= worry about self-conf. 3= worry " fearful sit. 4= female stereotyping 6= actions normal to females	
	MOTEC		+
	Items:	RESistence to temptation FEELings re transgressions SEVerity of punishment	
	SPAS		+
	Item:	PEnmanship & NEAtness	
	MSA	+	
	Item:	5= male stereotyping	

Thus, females score higher in those areas of difference more frequently than males except for perceptions of gender stereotyping. Probably, both maturation and socialization have more pronounced influence on their perceptions than the instructional interventions. Support for a normal increase in prosocial behaviours, presumably motivated by students' perceptions, is provided by the Mishra and Calmes study (1985) of 150 students.

> Lawrence Walker (1984) has used meta-analysis to examine 108 sample studies to determine the nature and effects of gender differences in moral reasoning. The conclusion is that very few studies reveal any significant differences attributable to gender. Certainly, at the age level of the subjects in this study, there is no corroborating evidence to suggest significant differences in moral reasoning between males and females.

Table 11

Tests of significances of differences of means of males versus females within the same treatment groups.

Group	Item	Males' Means	Females' Means	t	df	p
Motec	FEL	4.14	4.55	1.68	192	.10
Pre + Post						
Controls	SEV	16.83	14.81	2.42	192	.02
Post-Con	RES	-14.31	-9.35	2.19	185	.05
	FEL	4.25	5.09	3.88	185	.001
	SEV	15.53	16.79	2.12	185	.05
Post-Exp	MOR	17.05	18.26	1.65	144	.20
	FEL	4.39	4.74	1.38	144	.20
	CON	0.61	3.89	1.37	144	.20
SPAS						
Pre-Con	GENAB	4.04	3.18	1.70	82	.10
	ARITH	3.27	2.47	1.33	82	.20
	SCSAT	3.07	2.08	1.47	82	.20
	RESPE	3.07	1.84	1.61	82	.20
	PENEA	4.48	3.05	2.33	82	.05
Pre-Exp	GENAB	5.4	6.33	1.40	91	.20
Post-Exp	RESPE	7.17	8.11	1.90	144	.10
	PENEA	6.63	8.15	2.99	144	.01
	CONFI	4.06	4.56	1.37	144	.20
MOSA						
Pre-Con	I	14.39	8.31	1.76	63	.10
	III	5.79	11.94	1.61	64	.10
	V	0.41	-0 74	2.52	86	.02
MOSA						
Post-Con	II	14.48	16.24	1.99	181	.05
	III	19.65	25.56	2.97	181	.01
	IV	0.13	4.50	4.44	181	.001
	V	2.80	2.18	2.53	181	.05
	VI	1.78	1.91	2.44	181	.02
	VII	0.03	1.63	1.62	181	.20
Pre-Exp	II	9.94	14.89	2.01	69	.05
	IV	1.67	3.09	2.11	89	.05
	V	2.16	1.46	1.79	89	.10
	VI	0.22	1.24	1.89	89	.10
Post-Exp	I	23.98	22.79	1.39	142	.20
	II	15.55	17.69	2.09	142	.05
	III	24.49	27.93	1.62	142	.20
	IV	3.78	4.68	1.78	142	.10
	V	2.75	1.77	3.47	142	.001
	VI	1.49	2.69	3.91	142	.001

APPENDIX II

SOCIAL EDUCATION IN CANADA[1]

John R. Meyer

> My study of the history of citizenship education does not lead me to a sanguine belief that a genuine revival of the civic learning will be easy, nor is the long-term reform of civic education assured. But neither am I pessimistic or cynical about the prospects of a revival. The stakes are too great to justify either easy optimism or hard pessimism. One thing the record of innovation in education seems to show is that piecemeal efforts, the adding of a course, or the adoption of faddish methods, techniques, or hardware, seldom have long-term effects. (Butts 1980, p. 122.)

Simply substitute the term "social education" for "citizenship" or "civic learning" in the above quotation and you have the valid judgement of advocates of so many projects and programs concerned with the social dimension of living and learning. The message is also confirmed by those seriously concerned about educational change, especially implementation or "change in practice" (Fullan 1982, p. 15).

My focus here will be on two levels: (a) observations about my understanding of social education and its present state of the art in North America, and (b) suggestions of some projects/programs that have optimum potential for being implemented. The basis for my statements is largely experiential, spanning the '70s and '80s. I have attempted to remain informed about the status of various efforts, though this has been problematic since social change only marginally trails technological change.

TERMS AND MEANINGS:

For those whose career, profession, or educational interest in any manner touches the rather amorphous area of social studies, it is obvious that confusion may abound faced with the myriad of terms and related content areas. In addition to the seven or more academic disciplines included as social sciences or studies, there are a profusion of labels encompassing such topics as: social issues, critical thinking, values education, moral development, ethical inquiry, community education, law-related education, global education, family studies, multiculturalism, consumer education, environmental education, world religions, personal development, citizenship, or civic education, and political education.

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Each of these terms implies certain limitations or boundaries in the content of the area. Thus, citizenship or civic education would deal primarily with issues of political policy. Moral education and ethical inquiry would deal primarily with values and norms that have a focus on rightness and wrongness and criteria for reasoning about moral content. In many instances, the methods, form, or techniques used to engage the issues are similar, e.g., discussion, role-taking, analysis following a decision-making form, and extended activities for purposes of reinforcement and practice.

The use of the term social education has the merit of being comprehensive enough to embrace any of these areas that relate to the interrelationships of human beings as learners. It is that domain of values and abilities that allows people to work and live in groups both within and outside the classroom. Interpersonal, work, and life skills, which include traits of sensitivity, empathy, responsibility, compassion, and involvement are all part of the repertoire.

Hence, my definition of SOCIAL EDUCATION is:

> THE CONTENT AND FORM OF EDUCATIONAL PROCESSES THAT PROMOTE THE DEVELOPMENT OF SOCIAL SKILLS IN LEARNERS WHEREBY THEY CAN SOCIALLY NEGOTIATE REALITY.

For many years, social development has been recognized in theory as a necessary but insufficient cause of cognitive or academic achievement. In practice, "the main attention and content of reform is largely imbalanced in favor of the more basic of the cognitive goals, to the relative neglect of higher-order cognitive goals, and to a very strong passivity when it comes to personal/social-development goals" (Fullan 1982, p. 289).

North American schools have provided a rich terrain for a number of experiments in social education. In the last ten years, those projects or programs associated with the names of moral education and values education have been planted in individual schools and in a few school systems. Some of these efforts have been rather carefully described in such professional serials as, ETHICS IN EDUCATION, THE MORAL EDUCATION FORUM, and THE JOURNAL OF MORAL EDUCATION. Other publications, such as CHILD DEVELOPMENT and EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP have attended to experiments in other areas of social education under such terms as affective or humanistic education.

Law-related education has received considerable support from various law agencies, e.g., the American Bar Association, and has particular relevance to citizenship education in terms of its attention to democratic concepts related to rights and responsibilities. Several of these projects claim significant gains in students' knowledge and attitudes toward fundamental democratic values.

Indeed, all of these attempts have implications for the personal development of learners, as this is inseparable from social development. At least one component addresses the question: how do I get along in society and contribute to the public good? This has direct reference to what Dewey, Piaget, Kohlberg, and others consider the fundamental aim of education, namely, development.

Social education is integral to what a society represents, i.e., social interaction. When it comes to issues of power in the society, civic or citizenship education is at work. The origins of what North America considers the contemporary idea of citizenship are rooted in the emergence of the European nation-states in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries. The idea of democratic citizenship received its modern formulation in connection with the democratic revolution that swept much of Western Europe and British America in the eighteenth century. They were essentially protests against the established power of the ruling aristocracy.

Certainly, the Constitutions of both the United States and Canada have been influenced by Rousseau's definition of "citizen" within his SOCIAL CONTRACT of 1765:

> This public person, so formed by the union of all other persons formerly took the name of city, and now takes that of Republic or body politic; it is called by its members State when passive, Sovereign when active, and Power when compared with others like itself. Those who are associated in it take collectively the name of people, and severally are called citizens, as sharing in the sovereign power, and subjects, as being under the laws of the State.

But the challenge in this century is to recognize another view of society as:

> ...a representative democracy in which the state performs the relatively minimal purpose of providing a safe environment within which the citizens can pursue their various interests. It is the nightwatchman state. (Smith 1983).

In this view, there is not an identifiable common good, nor the expectation that there will be an actively participating citizenry (Chamberlin 1983) intensely devoted to public affairs, but the requirement of knowledge, skills, and attitudes that enhance the citizen's public well-being, e.g., forbearance, reasoned compromise, fairness, reasonable degree of self-restraint. Add to this, the awareness of a core ingredient of conflict in politics and political education, as stressed by Osborne (1982) and Botting et al. (1985).

It is important to interpret this view of contemporary democratic society as compatible with those who advocate a more informed and participatory citizenry acquired primarily through the means of schooling. The purpose now shifts from an idealized common good to the protection and promotion of self-interests. This requires competence in working with others to achieve these interests and hence some shared interests (Chamberlin 1983; Etzioni 1968).

This brings me to a final definition, which is again comprehensive and correlated to social education. It is a definition of a CITIZEN as:

> AN INFORMED PERSON, SKILLED IN THE PROCESSES OF A FREE SOCIETY, WHO IS COMMITTED TO DEMOCRATIC VALUES AND IS ABLE, AND FEELS OBLIGED, TO PARTICIPATE IN SOCIAL, POLITICAL, AND ECONOMIC PROCESSES. (Parker and Jarolimek 1984.)

THEORY INTO PRACTICE: THE PAST

The metaphor of the ebb and flow of the tides is perhaps most apt when discussing various projects in social education. There are starts and stops, intense beginnings followed by closures, and multiple factors coalescing to increase unpredictability. The projects and programs identifiable as those in social education have largely been of a "values" or "moral" educational nature.

Public agencies such as provincial/state and federal governments have, until recent restraints, provided research funds. Private agencies in the United States, such as the Danforth and the Kettering Foundations, have subsidized several projects in moral and in citizenship education. School systems - Hamilton, London, Scarborough (Ontario, Canada) and Tacoma, Pittsburgh, Scarsdale, Cambridge, and Salt Lake City (U.S.A.), and to some degree the provincial/state systems of Ontario, Illinois, and New York - have at one time or another promoted and supported social education projects, research, and instruction.

The critical and sensitive area of evaluation of moral and value dimensions has been slowly enhanced by means of the refinement and publication of Kohlberg's Moral Judgment Instrument, James Rest's Defining Issues Test, and John Gibb's Social-Moral Reflection Measure (Kuhmerker et al., 1980). Program evaluation has been carefully considered by Cline and Feldmesser (1983).

A few years ago, one could find a flow of research, program, and publication activities scattered throughout North America with only one or more specialists in each locality, e.g., in Canada at the Universities of Alberta, British Columbia, Calgary, Saskatchewan, Toronto (Ontario Institute for Studies in Education), and Windsor; in the United States at Boston, California (Berkeley and Irvine), Clark, Florida State, Harvard, Minnesota, New York (Hunter College and Courtland), Ohio State, Southern Illinois, and Alverno College.

Two professional associations were formed, namely, The Association for Moral Education (AME) and The Ontario Moral/Values Education Association (OM/VEA). Several special interest groups (holistic education, invitational education) arose within the context of such large organizations as the American Educational Research Association.

But what is particularly revealing about all these efforts and events is that now one faces an ebb period when any critical mass that once appeared to be present has virtually dwindled and in some cases has died and been buried. That is not to say that those who once led a dynamic period, perhaps even a movement, have all ceased to continue their interest. Several have persevered and continue to be very productive. But at the school system and individual project base, there is little evidence of a vibrant life, if any activity at all. A number of the researchers and theorists have turned their attention to post-secondary audiences for their target population. For others, funding has been curtailed or terminated

by conservative moves to avoid the controversial character of social education and/or return to some limited "basics". For example, one of the heated debates in the U.S. educational scene is about the "Protection of Pupil Rights" section in the General Education Provisions Act which was amended by Senator Orrin Hatch to avoid compulsory psychiatric examination, testing, or treatment intended to obtain private information from students. This has been widely misinterpreted by such persons as Phyllis Schlafly and state and local parental bodies concerned with educational legislation and policies (Social Studies Professional 1985, May/June)

Consumers or users of social education have even invoked self-censorship to avoid any threats to their daily occupational equilibrium. This may, in the long term, be the most significant obstacle to any inclusion of systematic application and implementation of social education in classrooms.

Learning from Failures: Some Examples:

It is perhaps valuable to analyze a few cases of what did not work rather than to leave the impression that only what works is meaningful to the researcher or theorist. At the secondary school level, I have observed specific schools in two states in which "civic" education had been implemented under support from the local school district and from private sources. One was in an urban setting and the other in a rural area.

In the one case, the objectives were loosely stated that students would be able to "make new friends, make yourself count, understand democracy, speak your views, learn to work together, and help one another". In the other case, the objectives were adopted from local district "democratic principles" based on the one aim "to create a moral society in which its members understand and act according to commonly held ethical principles".

Both of these cases had the ingredients for - what appeared in theory as ideal - a truly humanistic and democratic reform. Yet, in practice, inquiry and observation revealed that:

1. there was a rapid turnover in staff or other interests took priority as the programs struggled for acceptance;
2. students discovered an outlet for their frustrations and individuality in portions of these programs since they were unlike many of their typical courses, i.e., little opportunity to discuss issues or get involved in action projects or to build small communities and reduce alienation;
3. some specialists perceived some of the practices as being quite the opposite of "democratic" procedures, e.g., creating a new school code, which left little final authority in the hands of students;
4. leadership and/or support services varied from a high degree of authoritarianism to total flexibility without direction or to concerns about the profile ladder;

5. the general perception of these programs by those teachers not intimately involved was that they were "fringe operations to be appealed to in time of social or disciplinary crises. In other words, what was happening was only an "alternative" to the traditional functioning of the school and it was very problematic that it could ever be generalized.

These two cases simply confirm what more than a decade of curriculum research and school-based projects in social education have demonstrated, namely, that:

(1) TEACHERS are at the heart of the matter and require serious commitment, professional development, constant support for a long term effort. They must be capable of expanding their teaching repertoire for empathic, interpersonal, critical thinking, and social action skills. They must be reasonably sure that this venture will have some positive outcomes.

(2) PRIORITY must be clearly established by administrators and adhered to for the duration of the program. This required support of both personnel and finances which is normally included in the design of the project/program. A collective sense of credibility is desirable so that the exercise is perceived as being "owned" by those to be trusted, those who will probably complete a task using their energies to an optimum.

(3) SUFFICIENT TIME be alloted to the project/program so that it can reasonably "succeed". There are no short term panaceas for social development nor should the occasion for that type of perception be permitted, e.g., "faddism". Given the size and stability of a given student population, the design must account for the length of the project/program, that the objectives can be met within this time-frame, and that consistent interventions will take place each week.

(4) COMMON CAUSE or collective approaches must be incorporated for maximum impact, i.e., the school, peer, home, and media environments must share in the promotion of social education. Counter-productivity from any of these various influences must be reduced as much as possible. The issue of the "hidden curriculum" is very apt in any such discussion (Giroux and Purpel 1983).

(5) EVALUATION be as initial and dominating component in the design and implementation process of the project/program. Use of some of the multiple measures available is expected to assess the value of the exercise and lend credibility to the participants as well as justifying the support services and priority given by decision-makers. Indeed, more longitudinal research and evaluation is needed at the school and at program level in order to determine generalizability.

I know of only two school-based projects with general district school populations of 40-80,000 students where most or all of the above elements were and are operable, namely, the Hamilton and Scarborough Boards of Education in Ontario. Each of these projects, which have been functioning for more than ten years, has its different emphases, merits, and limitations.

The Recent Past

Two rather recent developments in Canada should be noted in our quest for theory into practice. One is the 1981 Alberta Social Studies Curriculum (Ethics 1984) which incorporated two sets of values, heretofore perceived by teachers to be in conflict:

(a) community expectations and value orientations, and,
(b) individual ethical or social inquiry processes.

The teacher has the task of explicating the respective value positions and assisting students to reconcile differences and contradictions and to make value choices. The process of students engaging in social or ethical inquiry and community values are both respected. The curriculum does not prescribe that a balance be maintained between the two areas but that each be treated reflectively and sensitively.

The other development is the publication of a "resource guide" for Grades K-6 entitled Personal and Societal Values (Ontario 1983). This was the culmination of at least four years of awareness activities and data collection in the Province of Ontario. A very comprehensive rationale is presented in the introductory sections. The words of various leaders and governmental education documents are cited and summarized in these words:

> While schools do not have the predominant role in the development of values in children they do have a clear responsibility to do their fair share to help children develop, and reflect on, the values that are essential for their individual well-being and for the well-being of society. (p. 4.)

The school is charged with the task of incorporating objectives taken from provincial research and policy reports on social education. They embrace all of the following:

- development of self-esteem
- recognition of the values held by the home, the school, the religious community, and society
- recognition of the importance of values to the individual and to society
- clarification of their own personal values
- becoming sensitive to the values of others
- identification of the values essential to their own well-being, the well-being of others, and the well-being of society
- recognition of the consequences of acting in accordance with a particular value position
- identification of a value conflict when it occurs
- development of methods for resolving value conflicts
- acquisition and practice of decision-making skills
- development of a capacity for moral reflection
- acting with regard for dignity and rights of all person.

There are some suggestions about promoting a school climate conducive to values development as well as examples of strategies or techniques that are appropriate for classroom interventions. Since this is merely a resource document, it is questionable to what degree this theory will be applied in classrooms. It will probably be examined to some degree, along with other elementary school subjects when official reviews take place.

British Columbia included a social education component in their revision of the social studies curriculum. Quebec has promulgated a separate course that will be compulsory each year at the elementary and secondary level. It is not yet clear to what degree the knowledge, skills, and attitudes will be nourished or developed in social education in either of these provinces since implementation has not occurred or is only partial.

At best, this historical précis suggests that a definite and positive awareness has taken place in all those jurisdictions where one or more elements of social education have been attended to and promoted. It is difficult to find evidence of momentum and of generalizability of a few "successful" programs. Where projects/programs were not closely linked to public policy and when they did not seriously attend to the aforementioned five conditions for appropriate design, they usually evaporated. More specifically, several of the following conditions conspired to undermine anticipated successful outcomes:

* Educational priorities shifted to the typical "basics" excluding the fourth R, "responsibility".
* A vocal minority proclaimed that religion and the family are the "exclusive preserve" for values, moral, or social education. This engendered both public and self-censorship.
* The integrative approach was not accepted by teachers and curriculum developers as it required a reorientation to teaching and content selection. Conducive subjects like social studies were not high subject priorities in education and had a restrictive content scope. Highly controversial issues tended to be avoided.
* There were inadequate support systems including system priority, leadership, funding, length of project, and appropriate evaluation procedures.
* Exaggerated claims sometimes emerged that later could not be validated. Quick and tangible results were unrealistically expected. Style and form sometimes overruled substance and content.

THEORY INTO PRACTICE: THE FUTURE

Though the ebb is clearly with us, there are signs of a renewed flow of concern and implementation of social education. Representative samples of that sometimes quiet but enduring educational effort appear in publications, by hearsay, by conference participation, and by all those other subtle means of sparking life into education. I am reminded of the many workshops that were held at the 1984 and 1985 annual conferences of the Ontario Moral/Values Education Association (OM/VEA) and The Association for Moral Education.

The various responses to the U.S. crisis in education first announced in A Nation At Crisis (1982), definitely call for a return to social education (Adler 1982; Sizer 1984).

There are two projects that offer me significant hope for a future in which application or implementation is the featured requirement. The development and the assessment has either taken place or is in process. Both of these projects are working toward a generalizable model. The evidence is not in yet about the total nature or impact of their design nor will it be for a few more years.

One project is located in a large district in Ontario. It is a uniquely collaborative effort of various urban agencies all concerned with social education, i.e., the Rotary Club, the police, and the city Board of Education. The concern for the prosocial behaviour of youth brought these groups together. Steve Barrs is the catalyst and his employer (Hamilton Board of Education) permitted him to extend his efforts in this collaborative manner. The early grades were included in Operation Prepare (Miller 1984; and Donohue 1984), followed by P.A.T. (Preparing Adolescents for Tomorrow). Instructional materials were carefully developed in co-operation with practitioners from classrooms. Field testing was done in a small group of schools, revision made, and dissemination begun only in those districts that will co-operatively introduce the materials, i.e., require the involvement of the Rotary Club, local police department, and school board or district.

The teachers' guides and the students' activity booklets are well designed and graphically attractive. Questions remain about the degree and type of implementation and evaluation that will ensue. I would recommend a "program audit" of the type described by a group of curriculum specialists (Kimpston et al. 1984).

The other promising project is the "Child Development Project" of San Ramon Valley Unified School District, California. The necessary components are all in place, i.e., ample support and funding from a large private foundation and co-operation from a well-organized school district; cumulative and sophisticated research methods; select staff specialized in pre-adolescent education and program planning; a co-operative team approach of project staff, students, parents, teachers, administrators; time allocation of 6-8 years; and a rigorous continuous assessment procedure.

The ninth issue of its newsletter, Working Together, summarizes the goal of this social education project in simple terms:

> We're trying to determine if an increased emphasis on cooperation and helpfulness in the school and home will result in kids who are more responsible and more responsive to the needs of others as they grow older.

There are five significant components or strands in this project, viz., (1) positive discipline, (2) helping/sharing activities, (3) understanding of others activities, (4) setting positive examples, (5) co-operative activities. Since these strands are given consistent attention in specific classrooms and have a ripple effect in the three experimental

schools, it can be claimed that some 1200 students are exposed to these types of interventions. This is a normal suburban educational setting with some modest mixture of socio-economic backgrounds. A preschool cohort has been established in order to track these students prior to and during their elementary school years in the experimental schools.

Each year a group of specialists are assembled for consultation purposes and external assessment. The careful monitoring is a partial assurance that the project will address the issue of generalizability in the near future. The design and operation of the project are very much dependent upon the results of applied research in social education (Brown and Solomon 1983; Meyer 1984).

Recent reports on the issue of productivity of schooling would also appear to corroborate this project (Walberg 1984). The nine factors requiring optimization to increase affective, behavioural, and cognitive learning are included in the Child Development Project, though sometimes under other terms. It is worth noting these factors of causal influences on student learning:

Group I: Student Aptitude
1) Ability or prior achievement
2) Development, indexed by chronological age or stage of maturation
3) Motivation, or self-concept

Group II: Instruction
4) Amount of time students engage in learning
5) The quality of the instructional experience (Bloom 1984)

Group III: Environment
6) The home
7) The classroom social group, morale, discipline (McDaniel 1984)
8) The peer group outside the school
9) Use of out-of-school time, especially leisure-time television viewing

If educators are able to improve and enhance these factors, learning will be more effective and incremental (Lieberman and Miller 1984). We, indeed, have a sufficient core of theory but we now need implementation or application.

Conclusion

Indeed, in our quest to discover the practice for social education in classrooms, we have omitted specific attention to several projects or programs that have, no doubt, attained success in their own right.

The Institute for the Advancement of Philosophy for Children is progressively influencing classrooms with a range of instructional materials to promote critical and ethical thinking. The private Ethical Culture Schools group in New England continues a lengthy practice of social education by means of both a segregated and an integrated approach to moral education (Radest 1983; Craig 1985).

Research studies, fortunately, continue to inform the potential practitioner about the very roots and foundations of social behaviour and social development. Elliot Turiel (1983) illuminates the process of children actively shaping their social world, their evolving understanding of the conventions of social systems. Nel Noddings (1984) begins her reflections with the moral attitude or longing for goodness and locates "the very wellspring of ethical behaviour in human affective response" (p. 3).

Such studies are a welcome compliment to the heavy emphasis upon the cognitive factors of social education. The serial publications, e.g., periodical Bulletins of the U.S. National Council for the Social Studies, tend to combine theory and practice in a presentation useful to practitioners. For example, social education is enhanced by the application of exemplary practices noted in Bulletin 70 (Hepburn 1983).

There is a danger in the current schools' reformation issue in the United States that only the cognitive development of learners should be attended to and promoted. Social areas of moral development and citizenship have been generally neglected in the many reports on American educational reform (Cross 1984).

Canadian documentation on similar issues is inclusive of the social areas but tends to restrict focus on policy statements and the elusive "integrative" approach, i.e., multiculturalism, values, life skills should all be "integrated" across the curricula. The usual consequence is total burial of the foci and no systematic treatment. However, in this case we have support documents are well designed and recently available (cf. VIP 1984; Ontario 1985).

It is important to affirm those educators who have devoted so much time and energy to the promotion of social education. Now that there are sufficient or abundant theoretical bases and instructional "how to" materials, it is imperative that continuous progress be achieved in designing and implementing (Fullan 1982; Bird 1984) social education programs. Such activity reaffirms one of the many comments of Lawrence Kohlberg (Munsey 1980):

> ...the fundamental aim of education is development, and development requires action or active experience. The aim of social education is the development of a person with the structures of understanding and motivation to participate in society in the direction of making it a better or more just society. This aim requires experiences of active social participation as well as the learning of analytic understanding, of government, and the moral discussion of legal and political issues. (p. 464.)

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